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ABSTRACT

A review of research in the past ten years documents adult learners' perceptions of their educational needs and their patterns of participation in adult educational activities. The populations studied include older adults, women, immigrants, native Canadians, undereducated adults, and handicapped adults. Each population is studied separately with inclusion of appropriate summaries and recommendations. Profiles of the participants and nonparticipants in adult educational programs are drawn from the studies utilized and reveal that nonparticipants exhibit a higher rate of functional illiteracy, lower educational achievement, less mobility, and less willingness to give spare time to learning, and participants enjoy more job training and a higher occupational prestige and are active in more community organizations. (WD)

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WORKING PAPER NO. 17

EDUCATIONAL NEEDS AND LEARNING CONDITIONS OF ADULT LEARNERS

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JUNE, 1978

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This study reflects the views of the authors and not necessarily those of the Commission or the Ministry of Education.

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Special recognition must go to several individuals who contributed critical effort to gathering information in a very short period of time for this project.

Ted Jackson and Raj Singh pursued many human and print resources in order for us to have up-to-date, reasonably sensitive information on Native People. Invaluable, too, was the personal background and interest that each of them brought to the sub-population they attended to.

Foster Vernon consented to research the area of parent education, only to lead the rest of us into a startled realization that very little data or information exists on that phenomena. Nonetheless, he spent many hours making sure we had not missed valuable material and simultaneously turned to interviewing over a half dozen prominent members of the community who have firsthand knowledge of developments in this field.

The tedious abstracting of ERIC documents was done by a number of persons who contributed varying numbers of hours. Each effort, brief or extended, has helped to have the project as full as it can be in the time available. Those who served as abstractors were: Raj Singh, Dorothy MacKeracher, Foster Vernon, Mary Savoie, Jeanne d'Arc Nacke, Noreen Morrison and Mary Fran Stevens.

And, special appreciation is due to Rochelle Hudson who carried the vast majority of the secretarial responsibilities involved in the production of this report.

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BACKGROUND

Our purpose in this study is to identify and summarize research in the field of adult education which is directed at documenting (a) adult learners' perceptions of their educational needs and desired conditions for participation, and (b) patterns of participation or non-participation in adult education activities. We were particularly interested in reviewing recent research, preferably done in the last five years, although we reviewed a number of works done in the last ten years. Material produced earlier than 1968 was not reviewed except in special cases where there was some distinct need for recording the information. We also searched specifically for Canadian work.

A number of studies came to our attention which surveyed providers (agencies, administrators) of adult education programs regarding their perceptions of learners' needs. As a rule, those studies were not summarized since we have learned from experience that providers and learners often have different perceptions regarding educational need and participation barriers, for example. That impression proved to be fair again as we reviewed materials for this project. Generally, learner studies yield more thorough descriptions of needs and barriers than studies of providers do.

Another group of studies which we excluded were those addressing the continuing education of professionals in their professions.

I. Identification of Populations

In terms of populations reviewed in this study, three groupings were adopted. First of all, we anticipated locating large studies which had researched major segments of North American or European populations. As these studies appeared, they fell into two groups: studies done over broad geographical areas and studies done over smaller, more restricted geographical areas.

In the first group, we have placed Waniewicz's (1976) major study of Ontario's adult learners, Carp, Peterson and Roelfs (1974) with their comparable study of the U.S., and the Lehtonen and Tuomisto (1975) study from Finland (comparable population and sample as Waniewicz). To this group we added Johnstone and Rivera (1965) from the U.S. as a historical reference and point of comparison for the three more recent works.

In the second group we placed the mass of studies which surveyed regional populations and which documented perceived needs or participation patterns of general adult populations. Data from these studies were summarized either (a) by theme in the Additional Summaries section, or (b) included in the various sub-population descriptions where appropriate.

The third group is the collection of studies we located which described particular populations or "subpopulations " which we felt ought especially to be brought to the attention of the Commission on Declining Enrolments. We decided at the outset of the study to deliberately pursue hard data on

undereducated adults,
older adults,
new Canadians (eventually retitled "immigrants"),
Native People,
parents, and
women.

As we reviewed material another group came to our attention, namely handicapped adults. Our failure to locate sufficient hard data on parent education prompted us to report what we discovered in the Additional Summaries section instead of in a separate subpopulation discussion.

These specific groups shall be referred to as "subpopulations" hereafter in this report.

II. Search Strategies

Our rule of thumb was the stipulation that any piece abstracted contain generalizable hard data. ERIC references and other sources of information were sorted and pursued on this basis. This strategy has resulted in a collection of research abstracts which gives us a good look at what is known currently about adult education phenomena. Naturally, our dream about ten perfect studies done since 1972 beautifully describing each population of interest never came true. However, enough hard data is available, in general, for us to come away from this project having some sense of the lay of the land.

Where hard data were not available, or where research had been done for highly specialized purposes or on restricted segments of populations, we were forced to develop a sense for "indirect indicators" of the nature and extent of particular subpopulation (e.g. parents, native Canadians and immigrants). Our notes in the "Sources and Search Strategies" sections in each subpopulation description will record the scope and/or limits of the hard data we were able to locate and the kind of information we accepted as indirect indicators.

Generalizable findings were organized for summarizing into three major categories:

(1) Educational needs as perceived or defined by adult learners and potential learners;

(2) Participation patterns and characteristics of adult learners;

(3) Desired conditions for participation on the part of adult learners and potential learners.

At the end of each summary, we have suggested recommendations regarding further appropriate educational opportunities for each subpopulation. It is important to remember that our intent was to base recommendations on implications arising directly from research. Adult education practitioners working with these subpopulations could, and in some cases, have presented to the Commission further appropriate recommendations arising out of their field experience in various briefs. In some of our subpopulation sections the need for further research is clearly indicated before further recommendations can be drawn from hard data.

MAJOR STUDIES OF EDUCATIONAL NEEDS AND PARTICIPATION PATTERNS OF ADULTS

In the past five years three major studies of educational needs have been published. They are (1) Demand for Part-Time Learning in Ontario by Ignacy Waniewicz in 1976; (2) Participation in Adult Education in Finland by Heikki Lehtonen and Jukka Tuomisto in 1975; and in 1974 (3) Adult Learning Interests and Experiences by Abraham Carp, Richard Peterson, and Pamela Roelfs based on a survey in the United States. These three studies are summarized and compared in this section. In addition, data from Johnstone and Rivera's 1965 U.S. study is included to provide a historical perspective for the data.

I. Populations and Samples

Each of the four studies was a survey of a sample designed to be representative of a large political subdivision. Waniewicz studied the educational needs of the adult population of Ontario through interviewing 1,541 residents, aged 18 to 69, not enrolled full-time in educational institutions. The study design produced a multistaged systematic random sample of approximately 95% of the population of Ontario based on the 1971 census. The responses were each assigned a weight to make the sample congruent in its main features with the general adult population of Ontario in order to allow numerical estimates of results.

The data for the Lehtonen and Tuomisto study conducted in Finland were gathered from two sources: (1) a questionnaire mailed to 2,177 persons aged 15 and over; and (2) an interview designed to be administered to 595 randomly selected persons. The rate of return of the postal questionnaire was 72.5% and 79% of the interviews were successfully completed.

The Carp, Peterson and Roelfs study interviewed a sample of 2,004 individuals from an original sample of 2,515 households randomly selected to represent the adult population of the U.S.A.

The Johnstone and Rivera study interviewed 11,957 individuals from an original probability sample of 13,293 households randomly chosen to represent the adult population of the U.S.A. in 1962.

II. Summary of Educational Needs

The concept of educational need is very difficult to interpret for adults, and it is important to specify the point of view of the person

defining the educational need. One important point of view is that of the individual adult who generally indicates his or her perceived educational needs as an expression of interest in a particular subject category. The table of learning interests presented below is a compilation of tables from each of the four studies.

Learning Interests Expressed by Percentage of Sample

Learning Category	Waniewicz Learners	Waniewicz Would-be Learners	Study Lehtonen & Tuomisto	Carp et al. Would-be First Choice	Carp et al. Learners Any Mention	Johnstone & Rivera Learners
General Education	30	25	-	13	48	12
Vocational & Professional	36	40	33.5	43	78	32
Hobbies & Recreation	23	20	-	13	63	19
Home & Family Living	4	9	-	12	56	12
Personnel Development	1	2	-	7	54	5
Religion	2	2	-	3	15	12
Community & Public Affairs	2	2	-	5	36	3
Agriculture	-	-	-	-	-	1
Other	2	1	-	1	3	3
No Response	-	-	-	1	0	-

The tables summarized above are (1) Waniewicz, Table 34: Subject categories planned for study by learners, and Table 35: Subject categories planned for study by would-be learners; (2) Lehtonen and Tuomisto, Table in Section 2.1: Subject of study; (3) Carp et al., Table 2: Learning interests of would-be learners reporting both any interst in the topic and first choice in the topic; and (4) Johnstone and Rivera, Table 3.10: Types of subject matter studied through adult education methods.

The data, where comparable, show stability both over different cultures and over time. The studies indicate that the strongest interest is in learning related to vocational and professional education with the next two largest categories being hobbies and recreation and general education.

III. Summary of Characteristics of Learners

The four studies each examined the characteristics of the learners identified through the interviews. The data from these studies were reported in a variety of formats and categories. The following table is a rearrangement of the original data in a comparable form. Some care must be taken as the definition of category varies slightly from study to study.

Characteristics of Learners and Would-be Learners Expressed by Percentage

	Waniewicz		Lehtonen & Tuomisto		Garp et al.		Johnstone & Rivera
	Learners	Would-be Learners	Learners	Potential Learners	Learners	Would -be Learners	Learners
Sex							
Male	53	40	47	51	49	46	47
Female	47	60	53	49	51	54	53
Age							
18 - 24 years	34	22	26(16-21)	18	22	20	31
25 - 34 years	33	32	37(22-31)	30	30	27	
35 - 44 years	18	19	21(32-42)	24	20	21	41
45 - 54 years	10	20	15(43-63)	21	20	22	
55 - 60 years	6(56-69)	7			8	9	28
60+ years	-	-	1(63+)	7	-	-	-
Marital Status							
Single	30	16	-	-	18	14	9
Married	63	75	-	-	76	78	83
Widowed/Divorced	7	9	-	-	5	7	8
Formal Schooling Completed							
1 - 8 years	6	13	42	73	5	10	29
9 - 11 years	40	49	12	14	12	18	51
12 years	10	7	8	7	38	38	
Some Post-Secondary	19	16	33	5	21	15	-
4-year College Graduate	26	15	5	*	21	13	20
Occupation							
Unskilled/Semi-Skilled	7	15	34	24	16	22	25
Skilled	26	31	32	42	18	15	18
Sales/Clerical	30	43	22	22	20	19	23
Small Business			4	6	7	7	12
Professional/ Large/Business	36	11	7	6	16	10	23
Job Status							
Full-time	72	58	-	-	57	55	62
Part-time	7	8	-	-	10	10	9
No job	21	34	-	-	31	33	29

*Less than 1%

The tables summarized above are (1) Waniewicz, Table 3: Learners and would-be-learners by age group, Table 4: By sex, Table 7, By marital status, Table 9, By educational attainment, Table 10: By employment status, and Table 11: By occupational group; (2) Lehtonen and Tuomisto, Table 3: Background of those participating at time of inquiry, Table 1: Study disposition in various groups and Table 2: Study disposition, participation and potential participants; (3) Carp et al., Table 1: Characteristics of learners and would-be learners; and (4) Johnstone and Rivera, Table 4.1: Personal characteristics of participants.

One of the most striking comparisons which may be made in the table is the proportion of men to women learners in the Ontario study compared to all three of the other studies. The proportion of women characterized as learners in Ontario is the lowest of any of the four studies, while the proportion of female would-be learners is the highest of the three studies making that categorization.

One can see the effect of the shifting population demographics by comparing the age distributions in the Johnstone and Rivera study with the study by Waniewicz. There are approximately twice the proportion of learners in the two lowest age categories in Waniewicz's study as there are in Johnstone and Rivera's 1965 study. The Carp, et al., study conducted at roughly the same time as the Waniewicz study also shows a major increase in the number of learners in the two lowest age categories. The Waniewicz study shows a much greater drop-off of learners in the 45-54 year category in Ontario than the Carp, et al., study which poses a rather interesting question for Ontario adult educators. Why is there a sudden, extreme decline in this part of the population?

Method of Study Expressed as Percentage of Sample

Method of Study	Waniewicz Learners	Waniewicz Would-be Learners	Lehtonen & Tuomisto	Carp et al. Learners	Carp et al. Would-be Learners	Johnstone & Rivera
Regular classes/ lectures	56	61	34	38	30	37
Conferences/work-shops/single lectures	7	5		9	14	7
Correspondence	4	6	13	5	3	6
Private lessons	3	1		6	8	5
Educational TV plus study guide	*	2	18	*	1	*
Audio programs plus study guide	*	1		*	1	*
Discussion/special interest/local action groups	6	7	24	6	12	7
On-the-job training	14	11	-	15	22	5
Self-directed	7	5	11	19	7	33
Other (e.g. travel-study program, programmed material)	2	-		2	2	*

*Less than 1%

The tables summarized above are (1) Waniewicz, Tables 83 and 84 Learners and would-be learners by method of learning most preferred; (2) Lehtonen and Tuomisto, data on form of participation; (3) Carp et al., Table 6: Methods of learning; and (4) Johnstone and Rivera, Table 3.11: Methods of study.

One must take some care in making comparisons using this table, because strictly speaking the data are not comparable. Waniewicz asked his respondents which method of study they preferred, while the other three studies have collected data on the methods actually used. Nonetheless, the data clearly show that method of study is still heavily related to the kinds

of study found in the youth oriented schooling. While there has been much written on innovative methods for adult study, both the figures of actual use of different study methods, and preferences for different study methods clearly favour more "traditional" methods. It is interesting to note that both the Finnish study and the American studies reported more self-directed study than is indicated by Waniewicz, though the difference may be due to the form in which the questions were put to the respondents.

Preferred Location Expressed as Percentage of Sample

Preferred Location	Waniewicz	Lehtonen & Tuomisto	Carp, et al. Learners	Carp, et al. Would-be Learners	Johnstone & Rivera
Formal Educational Institutions	(31)	(45)	(30)	(51)	(75)
Elementary	4	2	-	-	-
Secondary	7	7	10	17	25
Community College	7	-	6	10	37
University	6	4	9	12	
Technical/Business Schools	5	7	3	8	-
Correspondence Courses	2	8	2	4	-
Private School	-	17	-	-	13
Community & Cultural Organizations	(24)	(9)	(25)	(21)	(25)
Community groups	5	-	-	-	-
Service Organizations	6	4	7	3	12
Community "Free" Schools	3	-	3	10	-
Religious Centres	5	-	7	2	13
Library/Museum	5	-	2	1	-
Arts/Crafts Studio	-	3	1	3	-
Government Agency	-	2	5	2	-
Self-directed/Home	15	7	18	10	-
Work-related/Employer/ Professional sponsored courses	16	18	19	11	-
Special Interest/ Sports Clubs	9	5	2	1	-
Radio/TV	2	3	-	-	-
Individual Instructor	-	-	4	5	-
Other	3	13	2	1	-

The tables summarized above are (1) Waniewicz, Table 18: Participation in learning at various categories of learning facility; (2) Lehtonen and Tuomisto, Table 5: Participation...in the activities of different organizations...; (3) Carp et al., Table 7: Locations for learning; and (4) Johnstone and Rivera, Table 16.8: Preferred settings for study.

Again, some care must be taken in making comparisons due to a mixing of data related to actual settings for learning and preferred settings for learning. While the data show a wide variety of settings used and preferred, it is interesting to note the almost total lack of use and preference for the neighborhood elementary school.

Credit Desired as Percentage of Sample

Credit Desired	Waniewicz		Lehtonen & Tuomisto	Carp et al.		Johnstone & Rivera
		Would-be Learners			Would-be Learners	
No credit desired	42	37	No data available.	64	33	82
Credit desired	(58)	(63)		(36)	(67)	(18)
Certificate of Completion	19	31		16	22	-
Credit/Secondary School	2	3		4	5	2
Credit/University	11	6		7	18	7
Credit for Professional Vocational Cert.	22	18		7	21	-
Other	4	5		2	1	9

The tables summarized above are (1) Waniewicz, Tables 88 and 89: Learners and would-be learners by perceived importance of credit and Table 90: By type of official recognition desired; (2) Carp et al., Table 8: Credit; and (3) Johnstone and Rivera, Table 3.16: Credit status of adult education studies and Table 3.17: Types of credit sought.

It is interesting to note that a higher proportion of Ontarians than Americans seem to desire credit, and that post-secondary credit is more often desired. The Waniewicz study also indicates that would-be learners desire credit in higher proportions than learners.

Reasons for Learning as Percentage of Sample

Reasons for Learning	Waniewicz Learners	Waniewicz Would-be Learners	Lehtonen & Tuomisto	Carp et al. Learners	Carp et al. Would-be Learners	Johnstone & Rivera Learners
Individualistic Growth	(39)	(38)		(33)	(31)	(33)
Desire to gain knowledge	3	1		18	16	21
Desire to achieve personal goals	35	37		8	8	12
Desire to reach religious goal	1	-		7	7	-
Expressive Participation	(12)	(8)		(25)	(22)	(15)
Desire to socialize	2	1		8	8	9
Desire to escape	4	4		8	6	6
Desire to learn as a goal in itself	6	3		9	8	-
Instrumental Participation	(46)	(47)		(34)	(34)	(45)
Desire to achieve practical personal goals	33	37		24	21	38
Desire to achieve formal educational goals	10	5		4	7	-
Desire to satisfy family needs	3	5		6	6	7
Social Participation	(1)	(3)		(8)	(13)	(6)
Desire to achieve social or community goals	1	3		8	13	6
Other	2	4		*	*	1

No comparable data.

*Less than 1%

The tables summarized above are (1) Waniewicz, Tables 69 and 70: Learners and would-be learners by reason for learning; (2) Carp, et al., Table 10: Reasons for learning; and (3) Johnstone and Rivera, Table 8.1: Reasons for taking adult education courses. The category headings are from a factor analytic study by Lehtonen and Tuomisto, though no comparable percentage data were presented in that study.

The data from the Waniewicz study are roughly comparable to the Johnstone and Rivera study of 1965, though there are differences between Waniewicz and the more recent Carp, et al., study. The differences between particularly sharp in the expressive and instrumental categories.

Obstacles to Learning Expressed as Percentage of Sample

	Waniewicz Learners	Waniewicz Would-be Learners	Lehtonen & Tuomisto	Carp et al. Would-be Learners	Johnstone & Rivera Would-be Learners
Time/Responsibility Obstacles	(40)	(35)		(33)	(47)
No time/too busy	28	23		12	17
Job responsibilities				7	
Home responsibilities				8	
Hard to get out	6	8			14
Lack of child care				3	
Family not supportive				1	
Too tired/no energy	6	4		2	16
Accessibility Obstacles	(48)	(51)		(52)	(32)
Lack of finances/cost	13	15		14	19
Location too distant	11	11			
No transportation				2	
Lack of counselling/ information					
About available course	3	8		4	13
About value of courses	7	5		1	
Available courses do not fit needs/interests/ preference	6	2		3	
Institutional constraints					
Enrolment red-tape				3	
Length of program				5	
Attendance requirements				4	
Lack of part-time programs				9	
Lack of credit				1	
Inappropriate scheduling				4	
Dislike examinations	5	5			
Lack of prior education	3	5		2	
Attitudinal Obstacles	(3)	(5)		(12)	(21)
Lack of self-confidence					
Too old				4	3
Unsure of capability	2	5		3	
Would feel childish					2
Hesitate to seem ambitious				1	
Not interested at this time	1	*			
Courses don't interest					5
Tired of school				2	
Don't need classes					2
Don't enjoy studying				2	9
Other	8	8		2	

No corresponding data.

*Less than 1%

The tables summarized above are (1) Waniewicz, Table 100: Obstacles to further learning experienced by learners and Table 101: Obstacles to learning experienced by would-be learners; (2) Carp, et al., Table 11: Barriers to learning; and (3) Johnstone and Rivera, Table 10.17: Reasons potential participants do not attend adult education classes. Again the category titles are taken from the Lehtonen and Tuomisto factor analytic study though no comparable percentage data are included.

It is interesting to note in this table that barriers related to having enough time seem to have decreased in the ten-years span since the Johnstone and Rivera study. On the other hand, barriers cited as relating to accessibility seem to have increased. It is not possible to tell whether these data reflect a reality in decreasing accessibility, which seems unlikely, or whether with an increased perception that time is available individuals are led to focus on other barriers.

OLDER ADULTS

I. Definition of Subpopulation

The subpopulation, older adults, is defined as those persons age 55 years and over who are no longer working at their major occupations or who consider themselves to be retired. In most of the literature surveyed, this subpopulation is further divided into two major subgroups which are: those between the ages of 55 and 75 years are the "young-old"; and those over the age of 75 years are the "old-old". In the studies surveyed for this report, none could be found which indicated whether the participation rates and learning needs of these two subgroups were significantly different.

It should be noted that the subpopulation of older adults is studied in different ways by different interest groups, in such a manner as to yield one further basic typology for subdividing the population (Thomae, 1976). In this typology, two subgroups emerge which are: those who are "successful agers", who adapt well to physical and social aging, who remain relatively independent and who live in the larger community; and those who are "unsuccessful agers", who are moderately to severely limited or disabled by physical and social aging, who are dependent, and who most often live under some form of custodial care. The former group is generally described as being similar to younger adults except for chronological age and means of financial support. The latter group is generally described in medical or clinical terms and is often perceived as being "terminally ill". The studies referred to in this report all relate to the former subgroups. No studies were found which related to the latter group. Although societal stereotyping often defines the entire subpopulation as if it were in the latter category, in reality less than 10% can be considered to be part of it.

II. Search Strategy and Sources

The studies reported were found through a search of ERIC and EISO documents, through a review of current journals, through use of a summary report by Riley and Foner (1968), through use of Statistics Canada material, and through personal knowledge of regional Canadian studies.

III. Subpopulation Size

In 1974, the subpopulation of older adults in the province of Ontario was 8.5% of the total; 7.2% for males and 9.9% for females. Projections indicate this subpopulation will rise to four men for every six women by (Statistics Canada, 1977).

In 1971, the ratio of men to women in this subpopulation was seven to ten and has been projected to rise to four men for every six women by 2001 (Statistics Canada, 1977). Life expectancy figures have been increasing gradually in the past fifty years, more rapidly for women than for men. In 1977, women who were 70 years could expect to live to age 84, while men of 70 years could expect to live to age 80.

There is evidence of an "aging phenomenon" occurring within Ontario communities. Increasing proportions of older adults are to be found in small urban and suburban areas (Science Council of Canada, 1976). This results from several factors: older adults moved to these centres in the 50's and 60's and do not now wish to relocate; younger adults have migrated away from these centres; large urban centres tend to redevelop core areas, thereby dislocating older adults who are forced to move to outlying, less expensive areas (Riley and Foner, 1968).

About 8.1% of the total subpopulation lives in group facilities or collective housing, such as nursing homes, hospitals, penitentiaries, rooming houses, etc.; 62.8% live with their spouse or one other person; 18.4% live alone (mostly women); and 10.7% live with a family group. The 8.1% figure exceeds comparable figures in the United States and several western European countries which have higher proportions of older adults within their total populations (Statistics Canada, 1977).

About 80% of all older adults are active without much, if any, disability and must be considered as active citizens.

In 1973, the source of income for older adults (65+ years) was from employment (22%); from government transfer payments (55%); and from investment income, private pension benefits, and other miscellaneous sources (23%) (Statistics Canada, 1977).

IV. Summary of Educational Needs

Six studies yielded data about the educational needs of older adults. Sarvis (1973) reported that the major needs expressed by older adults are to avoid loneliness, to enhance personal survival

and security activities, and to provide opportunities for socializing. Educational activities preferred were: hobby, recreation and special interest courses; consumer and economic studies; languages; and programs related to the senior power movement. The lowest priority for educational activities was found to be in the area of basic academic upgrading.

Hiemstra (1975) reported that the highest priority for educational activities was in health and finance related areas, followed closely by hobby, recreation and special interest programs.

Galvin (1975) reported that older adults are interested in a wide range of educational activities with hobby, recreation and special interest programs ranking first; followed by health, consumer education and nutrition programs; and by supplemental income related programs. Older adults reported that they need educational services which include transportation to courses, health counselling and information, and social/recreational activities. The underlying motives for these needs were perceived as including a need to cope better with the daily problems of life, a need to prepare for retirement, a need to develop better social and self understanding, and a desire to train for service to the community.

Fales (1975) reported that the foremost learning interest was related to keeping one's health. The learning activities desired were in the areas of health education; hobby, recreation and special interest courses; financial and legal related programs; and environmental issues.

A study of the Third Career Research Society (1976) for the government of Alberta reported on needs related to retirement. The major source of satisfaction in retirement were friendships, family and other socializing activities; freedom and reduced responsibility; and interesting and satisfying things to do such as hobbies, special interests and meaningful community activities. These were defined as satisfaction motivators. The major sources of dissatisfaction were found to be poor health, inadequate finances, and inadequate planning for retirement. These were defined as maintenance motivators. When translated into unmet needs, the greatest discrepancy between what was available and what was desired occurred in the available opportunities

for travel; for family visiting and other socializing activities; for worthwhile activities; and for personal growth and development. The unmet need for personal growth and development was six times greater among the rural group when compared to the urban group. The report concludes that the need is for programs which increase personal development, growth and self-esteem through activities which challenge, which are perceived as meaningful to the participants, and which give a sense of achievement (e.g. volunteer action programs). The report goes on to recommend that educational institutions provide "interest" type courses and low or tuition free courses so as to not add to the financial burden of older adults.

Daniel, Templin and Shearon (1977) report that credit and non-credit students of 60+ years in community colleges and technical institutes rank learning related to making a contribution to society, to improving socializing opportunities, to meeting interesting people, and to acquiring useful knowledge and skills as of far greater importance than learning related to earning more money or to simply filling up time. Needs for educational services were expressed as a preference for institutions which are close to home, provide high quality instruction and interesting programs, are relatively low in cost, and use an open door admissions policy.

In summary, older adults need to have access to educational activities which are close to their place of residence, are low in cost, varied in type, high in quality and to which they can be freely admitted. An older adult has two sets of needs: maintenance needs which operate to keep him healthy and financially secure; and satisfaction needs which operate to keep up his self-esteem and help him feel he belongs. The former needs lead to educational programs which focus on health, nutrition, financial, legal and planning issues or problems related to being over 55 years. The latter needs lead to educational programs which focus on personal and creative interests; recreational and social activities; personal growth and development; and worthwhile activities which contribute to the community.

V. Summary of Characteristics of Participants

Six studies yielded data on the characteristics of older adult learners who become involved in various types of educational activities.

Hiemstra (1975) reported that those older adults who participate in "instrumental" activities tend to be male, in the younger age group, members of minority groups; while participants in "expressive" activities tend to be female, unmarried, and members of minority groups. Instrumental activities included both information and skill mastery courses; expressive activities included recreational, special interest courses. Instrumental courses were preferred overall. Urban, "white collar" workers and those who live in private dwellings outnumber rural and working class participants and those who live with someone else.

Fales (1975) reported that the average older adult learner is female, from a middle income family, about 70 years of age, lives in a private dwelling, is in fairly good health, and has grade 8 or less education.

The study by the Third Career Research Society (1976) reported that 66% of all respondents wish to participate in continuing education programs. The rate of interest is highest among urban pre-retirees, falls off considerably (20%) among urban retirees, and is lowest among rural retirees. Interest in educational activities tends to rise as income increases, but decreases in all groups with increasing age. The report also indicates that 67% of pre-retirees have never even heard of pre-retirement planning courses; but that 65% would attend such courses if they were available

Daniel, Templin and Shearon (1977) report that the rate of participation of 60+ students is 3.1% of the total student population. Since this is well below the distribution rates for older adults within the general population, the report suggests that educational institutions are not reaching the older adult learner nor providing programs which meet his needs.

Riley and Foner (1968) reported that the rate of participation in all types of formal and independent educational activities by older adults was 9% for males and 10% for females. The rate of participation

for older adults at any educational attainment level is lower than that of younger adults. However, the exposure of adults to continuing education activities increases with each age cohort, and with increased exposure comes greater demands on and expectations of the educational system. Waniewicz (1976) reported that participation rates for older adults had increased to 12% for males and 14% for females.

Henretta, Campbell and Gardocki (1977), in summarizing the findings from several U.S. studies, indicate that the educational attainment level of older adults increases with each successive age cohort. The following table indicates the approximate attainment levels for three cohorts from U.S. data and similar data from the 1971 Canadian Census (Statistics Canada, 1977).

	55-64 years (U.S.)	65-74 years (U.S.)	75+ years (U.S.)	65+ years (Canadian)
Grade 8 or less completed	30.0%	45.5%	55.5%	63.7%
Grade 12 or less completed	50.0%	38.0%	31.0%	25.7%
Post-secondary (1 year +)	16.0%	13.0%	11.5%	
non-university				6.1%
university				2.5%
University completed at least one degree	4.0%	3.5%	2.0%	2.0%

In summary, older adult learners tend to be women, those who have average, or above, income, live in urban areas, in private dwellings, are in good health, over age 65, with an educational attainment of grade 8 (approx.). As the cohort of older adults currently aged 55-64 years reaches the 65+ range, the educational attainment level of the average adult learner will increase accompanied by increasing previous experience in continuing education activities. By the year 2001, two new cohorts will have been added to the 55+ population and these older adults will have still higher educational attainment levels and more continuing education experience. The demands on and expectations of the educational system will increase correspondingly. As the ratio of women to men increases, the total numbers of continuing education participants will also increase. As the total population ages in general, rural, small urban and suburban areas will be called upon to provide increasing educational services to older adults.

At the same time the non-participation of undereducated lower income older adults who have the greatest maintenance needs will become increasingly evident.

VI. Summary of Educational Conditions Desired by Subpopulation

Six studies yielded data about desired conditions and barriers to participation among older adult learners.

Sarvis (1973) reported that courses with minimal tuition fees were valued more highly than courses with no tuition fee; that daytime courses located in senior centres are preferred, of 6-10 weeks duration with regular scheduling; that older adults prefer to make contributions to course planning; and that completion certificates are valued but not grades. The barriers to participation included lack of transportation; lack of finances; impaired vision and hearing; impaired physical mobility and lack of structural facilities which ease physical access; lack of trusted persons or friends within the program; irregular scheduling. The older adults surveyed did not feel "qualified" to attend a "college". In terms of programming, the older adults preferred short, separate courses, each one complete within itself, rather than in-depth or sequential courses.

Hiemstra (1975) reported that barriers include cost of courses and course materials; interferences of home responsibilities; general lack of physical energy; no perceived learning needs or needs which had never been translated into learning needs; lack of self-confidence (too old or not qualified to attend); poor health; and lack of information about "where I can get what I want". Desired conditions for participation included flexible attendance requirements.

Galvin (1975) reported that older adults prefer community centres (74%) or school buildings (63%) as locations for educational activities; and that preferred types of activities included museum tours, demonstrations, field trips, community awareness projects, short courses, and home learning sessions.

Fales (1975) reported that older adults prefer familiar buildings such as churches or clubs as locations for educational activities; and types of activities preferred include group learning, field trips, discussion groups, radio and TV, and lectures.

Havighurst (1976) reported on a study made by the Educational Testing Service in the United States which indicates that hobby and recreational courses were the preferred choice of older adult learners. Older adults, who would like to but don't participate in continuing education activities, give as their major reason for not participating, that they are too old (42%); do not have enough time (36%); do not want full-time schooling (34%); have other responsibilities (22%); cannot meet time requirements for program (19%); do not have enough energy (15%); and do not like the attendance requirements (15%). Havighurst suggests that this indicates a mind set against educational activities which will change as new age cohorts enter the 55+ group.

Daniel, Templin and Shearon (1977) report that older adults select educational institutions for a variety of reasons. In rank order these are: type of educational programs available; close to home location; quality of instruction; low cost; open door admissions policy; and student-centered instruction and activities.

In summary, desired conditions for participation in educational activities by older adults include: close to home and familiar location; minimal cost for materials and tuition; short, regularly scheduled courses which are offered during the daytime, and have no pre-conditions for admission; learner-centered programs to which the student has input and which contain a relatively high proportion of experiential learning activities; and high quality of instruction which does not teach "down" to the learners. The major barriers to participation fall into two categories: those over which the educational institution has no control and those over which it has. In the former group are problems such as poor health; lack of energy; poor vision and hearing; lack of physical mobility; other responsibilities; lack of self-esteem and self-confidence; and lack of awareness of how personal needs could be met through learning or educational activities. Those in the latter group include poor physical environments which do not facilitate visual, hearing or physical impairments; lack of information or counselling services; strict admissions and attendance policies which discourage older adults; lack of personal contact between older adult learners and the educational institution; unpredictable alterations in scheduling.

In general, it is the institution which must provide for dependability, diversity, accessibility, and flexibility. The older adult learner then needs the right to choose from the available alternatives according to his own needs and limitations.

VII. Recommendations

If the Commission recommends that additional resources be directed to the education of older adults, then the following recommendations are suggested for publicly-funded agencies providing adult education:

1. Educational activities should be provided for older adults which are located close to their place of residence.
2. Educational activities for older adults should be provided at minimal cost for both tuition and resource material.
3. Boards of Education should provide educational activities which serve to meet the maintenance needs of older adults. These activities should relate to health, nutrition, financial and legal issues and to planning problems, particularly in the area of retirement planning.
4. Boards of Education in urban areas could provide a useful service to older adults by providing educational activities which serve to meet satisfaction needs and which focus on personal and creative interests; personal growth and development concerns; recreational and social activities; and worthwhile activities through which the individual could contribute to his community.
5. Boards of Education which serve small urban, rural and suburban areas should provide educational activities which serve to meet both maintenance and satisfaction needs.
6. Means should be found to reduce barriers to participation in educational activities particularly among the undereducated and low income older adults.
7. Boards of Education should consider how their educational facilities and structures could be modified to assist, and not inhibit, the particular disabilities of older adults. This might include ramps for wheelchairs and those on canes or crutches; classes on the ground floor; the size of desks; lighting and acoustics; washroom facilities, etc.

8. Boards of Education should be prepared to fund educational activities for older adults on some basis other than attendance figures.
9. Boards of Education should be prepared to employ community consultants, trained to work with older adults, to work directly with these learners as a "trusted person" within the educational system.
10. Boards of Education should be prepared to hire high quality instructors, trained to work with older adults, as well as to teach.
11. Boards of Education should be prepared to develop an information and counselling service to assist older adult learners to develop plans for adapting to aging changes and, when necessary, to indicate how those plans could be furthered through learning activities.
12. Boards of Education should be prepared to guarantee funding and educational plans for several years in advance, to reduce unexpected changes in plans and to increase institutional dependability.

WOMEN

I. Definition of Subpopulation

The subpopulation termed "women" is defined as adult females, 15 years of age and over. In most of the studies used in this report, this subpopulation is further defined as those women not currently enrolled in a full-time educational program, but who are disposed to participate in learning activities. In those cases where a distinction has been made, women are described as full-time or part-time learners (i.e. participants); and would-be-learners or non-learners (i.e. non-participants).

II. Search Strategy and Sources

All the research reviewed in this section contains evidence related to women. Twenty studies relate exclusively to women. Since women are represented in all segments of society, several studies used in other sub-populations of this report also contained data pertinent to women. These studies were included in this section where appropriate.

The studies reviewed were obtained through searching the ERIC and EISO databases; through scanning journals and searching citations; through personal contacts with knowledgeable persons; and through such specific Canadian sources as the "Canadian Newsletter on Research on Women" and the Canadian Committee on Learning Opportunities for Women. Statistics were obtained through publications of Statistics Canada, Manpower and Immigration, the Women's Bureau (Ottawa), and the Ontario Government.

III. Subpopulation Size

Using 1976 figures, women 15 years of age and over represent 51% of the adult population of the province of Ontario. This distribution is similar to that of the adult population of Canada (Statistics Canada, 1976).

Among the Indian and Metis population of Ontario, women represent 49% of the population (Ontario Statistics, 1976). Among the immigrant adults who entered Ontario during 1976, women represented 54% of the total. These immigrant women were distributed among the following age groups (1976 Immigration Statistics):

Age group	Distribution of adult immigrant women
15-19 years	11%
20-24 "	23%
25-34 "	31%
35-64 "	9%
65+ "	8%

Nearly three-fifths of immigrant women are married and have children. Foreign-born women have higher participation rates in the labour force than native-born women (Boyd, 1977).

Women represent an increasing proportion of the labour force in Ontario. Since much of formal education activities for adults is job-related in some way, a brief consideration of some of the basic statistics is in order. In 1961 employed women represented 29% of the total labour force; by 1975, this had risen to 36%. The rate at which women participate in the labour force has increased from 32% in 1961 to 44% in 1975. Unfortunately, the rate of unemployment also increased. In 1961, the unemployment rate for Ontario women was 3% and for men, 6%. By 1971, the unemployment rate for Ontario women had risen to 8% and for men, fallen to 5%. For those women with less than a completed secondary school education, the unemployment rate was 10%; for those with completed secondary school, 8%; and for those with completed university, 6% (Labour Canada, 1976).

Participation rates for women vary according to several factors. In terms of age, the participation rates are (Labour Canada, 1975):

Age Group	Participation rates by age group
15-24 years	60%
25-54 "	56%
55-64 "	36%
65+ "	5%

When these age group participation rates are broken down by status of motherhood and by age of youngest child under 16 years, the rates show considerable variation within age groups (Labour Canada, 1976).

Participation rates by motherhood and by age of youngest child under 16 years (for 1973)

Age of mother	Total women with children	Age of youngest child: Under 2 years	2-5 years	6-16 years	Total women, no children
20-24 years	35%	28%	41%	--	77%
25-34 "	39%	27%	36%	56%	86%
35-44 "	45%	--	35%	49%	71%
45-54 "	37%	--	--	39%	56%

These figures suggest that the presence of small children in the family prevents many women from participating in the labour force, and that as the youngest child reaches school age an increasing number of women become employed.

The educational attainment figures for women in Ontario indicate that more women than men have at least a partial secondary school education, but that fewer complete grade 13 and fewer still go on to post-secondary education; that among the undereducated (i.e. those with less than grade 9 education) there are generally fewer women than men. In urban centres in Ontario, however, there are relatively more undereducated women than men (Thomas, 1976). This pattern also holds true for the Indian and Metis population of Ontario. A more complete breakdown of educational attainment figures is included in the section on learner characteristics.

According to the 1971 census figures, the taxable income for employed women was consistently lower than for men; and women more frequently occupy lower paid jobs than men. The following table indicates a breakdown of taxable income for males and females (for 1970 as reported in 1971; taken from Thomas, 1976).

Income	Total distribution: Males	Females	Undereducated (Less than grade 9): Males	Females
no taxable income	*	7%	1%	12%
less than $1,000	10%	22%	9%	30%
$1,000 to 3,999	21%	39%	26%	40%
$4,000 to 6,999	28%	24%	35%	16%
$7,000 to 9,999	23%	6%	21%	2%
$10,000 and over	17%	2%	8%	*

(*less than 1%)

IV. Summary of Educational Needs

While all studies reviewed discussed needs in some form, only twenty yielded hard data about educational needs related to program and support services. Many of the support needs also appear as barriers or preferred conditions for participating in educational programs and will, therefore, be considered in greater detail in that section.

Of the twenty studies used, ten dealt with Canadian populations: Quinlan (1971), Krakauer (1975 and 1976), and VanderVoet (1978) examined the needs of community women living in Metropolitan Toronto; Laden & Crooks (1975) looked at mature women students in Alberta; Waniewicz (1974) conducted an extensive survey of part-time learners throughout Ontario; Willis (1977) gathered information from Canadian adult educators; Schwager, Auger & Moffitt (1974) focused on Indian and non-status Indians in northern Ontario; Hewitt & Staples (1972) surveyed the Hamilton area with regard to a proposed adult day school; and Skelhorne (1975) discussed the needs of mature women registered as full-time university students. Data from these and eleven non-Canadian studies were summarized and are presented here as a composite picture.

About one-half of women enrolled in part-time educational programs want credit (Waniewicz, 1974; Robison, 1976; Krakauer, 1976). Of those wanting credit, 40% want a certificate of satisfactory completion; 30% want a credit toward a professional or vocational certificate; and 23% want a credit toward some other formal educational goal (Waniewicz, 1974).

Women who are enrolled full-time in educational programs represent about 12% of the total women 15 years of age and over in Ontario. The majority of these women are enrolled in credit programs.

About 60% of women who are participants in part-time learning programs would prefer to attend regular classes; 15% prefer on-the-job training; 10% prefer learning in groups of various types; and 5% prefer each of correspondence courses, private lessons, and independent study (Waniewicz, 1974; Krakauer, 1976). These figures differ from those for men in that women tend to be more likely to prefer group learning then men, and to be less likely to prefer on-the-job training then men.

Waniewicz (1974) reports that women prefer to attend formal educational institutions (30%) and community or cultural centres (24%) as learning facilities. Another 15% prefer learning settings which allow for self-direction.

The number of hours per week that women are prepared to use for learning activities varies considerably from study to study. The majority of women appear to be willing to devote between 2 and 6 hours per week. Many women also express a preference for time distributed over one session per week rather than over two or three (Waniewicz, 1974; Krakauer, 1976; Bellenger, 1976).

About one-half of women learners prefer evening classes. Of those who prefer daytime classes, more prefer morning classes than afternoon (Steele, 1974; Krakauer, 1976; Bellenger, 1976; N.Y. State, 1977).

The New York State study (1977) of both participants and non-Participants indicates that women have a strong preference for courses which run during the fall and spring terms. Reasons suggested for this include difficulties in getting out during winter months and increased family responsibility during both winter and summer.

Waniewicz (1974) was the only study reporting on preferred costs for learning activities other than to report finances as a barrier to participation. He reports that among learners, 54% of women would prefer to spend nothing or less than $100 for learning activities, compared to 41% for men; and that only 25% of women are willing to spend more than $200 compared to 35% of men.

Although the categories used to describe preferred subject areas vary from study to study, all appear to agree that about one-half of women learners select subjects which focus on instrumental participation. The most prominent of these subjects relate to vocational and professional skills and certification; to academic and basic education courses; and to improvement in home and family management skills. About one-third of women learners select courses which contribute to individualistic expression and personal growth. The most prominent of these are arts and crafts courses, educational travel, subjects related to the performing arts, and recreational or physical activities. A small but significant proportion of women learners select programs and courses which focus on community activities and social action, some related to voluntary service activities. (Johnstone & Rivera, 1965; Shultz & Riggs, 1972; Waniewicz, 1974; Lehtonen, 1975; Krakauer, 1976; Bellenger, 1976; N.Y. State, 1977.)

A further analysis of these subject areas indicates that among women learners, those aged 18-24 years tend to prefer general education over vocational programs; those aged 24-44 years tend to be divided equally between

general education, vocational and recreational programs; and those over age 45 years tend to prefer recreational subjects (Waniewicz, 1974).

The preferred subject areas of women learners suggest that many women still gravitate toward traditional female occupations and general subjects such as nursing, education, clerical work, child, family and home-related knowledge and skills (Laden & Crooks, 1975). Several studies questionned whether this was the result of the type of courses available at the times women can attend; a lack of awareness of alternative courses on the part of women learners; or the general role-related needs of women at various times in their life (Brandenburg, 1974; Cook, 1976; Willis, 1977).

The reasons women give for engaging in learning activities follows a pattern similar to that in preferred courses. By grouping all the available data under the headings proposed by Lehtonen (1975), we found that the majority of reasons for learning coalesce into those related to instrumental participation (approximately 50%) and those related to individualistic growth (approximately 40%). The remaining 10% is divided between social and expressive participation. Under instrumental participation the major reasons for learning are: entry or re-entry to the job market (includes job preparation, upgrading present skills and acquiring new skills); increasing or updating skills for advancement in current occupation; preparation for career changes; entry or re-entry to the educational system (includes study skills); better management of one's own problems and decisions; better family and home management; acquisition of educational degrees or certificates (includes literacy skills); and acquisition of vocational or professional credentials. Under individualistic growth, the major reasons for learning are: to find and accept one's own identity; to increase self-confidence, self-esteem, self-satisfaction; to achieve independence; to become better informed; to become more self-directed. (Johnstone & Rivera, 1965; Quinlan, 1971; Steele, 1974; Brandenburg, 1974; Waniewicz, 1974; Laden & Crooks, 1975; Robison, 1976; Krakauer, 1976; Bellenger, 1976; Astin, 1976; Richard, 1976; N.Y. State, 1977; Willis, 1977; VanderVoet, 1978.)

Some basic differences appear when comparing men and women. Men tend to assign job-related reasons a higher priority than women (Waniewicz, 1974). In addition, men are more concerned than women about advancing in a current job, while women are more concerned about getting a new job (N.Y. State, 1977).

Other variations in the basic pattern are age-related. While women under 30 years and men of all ages enrol mainly for job-related reasons, women over 30 years tend to enrol to be better informed or to be involved in recreational learning activities (Johnstone & Rivera, 1965; Waniewicz, 1974).

A significantly greater number of women than men participate to escape from confining and intellectually impoverished environments (Waniewicz, 1974). These women are most often mothers with small children and older women whose children have left home.

Special subgroups of women indicate reasons for participating which vary, not so much in kind, but in priority. Homemakers and mothers with preschool children participate to improve family and home management skills (Shultz & Riggs, 1972; N.Y. State, 1977). Metis and Indian women appear to prefer home management skills (Schwager, 1978). Non-English speaking immigrant women participate to learn English language and Canadian life skills, and to upgrade their academic attainment level. Older women participate to contribute something meaningful to their community and to learn for the sake of learning. Women over 35 years often participate as a means for assisting them in redefining their life roles (Laden & Crooks, 1975).

In summary, women want both credit and non-credit learning programs; tend to prefer regular classes held in formal educational institutions or local community centres; prefer evening classes in spring and fall; have less money to spend (or are less willing to spend money) on learning activities when compared with men; tend to select courses which allow for instrumental participation (most often job-related) and/or individualistic expression and personal growth.

These needs appear to fit into a general model of developmental tasks within the total society. Women between the ages of 25 and 34 are often not employed full-time and at home with preschool children. During this stage their learning needs relate to home, child and family management. Many women in this stage are also concerned about occupational preparation for the next stage, an activity which is done by men during earlier years. This preparation may require academic upgrading, occupational skills acquisition and general job preparation. During the years after 35, many women have reached a stage in which their youngest child is in school full-time and they are free to work full- or part-time. During this stage their learning needs relate to managing

a double set of roles, and to occupational skill updating for advancement or improvement. Other learning needs tend to focus on transitional problems as a woman enters or re-enters a different social system. These needs might include study skills for those who have been out of school for some time; skills for managing rapid change; problem-solving and decision-making skills. Still other needs relate to the psychological results (low self-esteem, lack of self-confidence, loss of independence) of being isolated in a small home with young children; without creative or remunerative work; without stimulating adult interaction; and without the normal societal rewards which accrue from gainful employment outside the home.

Special groups of women have special needs in addition to all those mentioned above. Immigrant women need learning activities related to entry into a new language, social and cultural environment. Under-educated women need to acquire the basic educational level required for further occupational training.

A large group of needs have not been discussed in this section: day-care facilities; financial assistance; information and counselling services; supportive female contacts within educational institutions. These will be discussed in the section dealing with preferred conditions for participation.

V. Summary of Characteristics of Participants

In general, women participate in learning activities in numbers proportional to their distribution within the population, subject to those variables which traditionally influence participation rates. Women who are well-educated; who are in the middle or upper socio-economic strata; who are under age 40; and who have previously participated in adult learning activities are more likely to be participants now or disposed to participate in the future (Johnstone & Rivera, 1965; Waniewicz, 1974; Cook, 1976).

The table on the following page indicates the educational attainment levels and amount of additional training for women out of school. The table indicates that women are more likely than men to have at least partially completed secondary school, but fewer are likely to go on to post-secondary education; that fewer women than men have received vocational training at all levels of educational attainment; that women are less likely to enter university and more likely to enter other forms of post-secondary education; that educational attainment increases with each succeeding age cohort; that the differences between men and women decline with each succeeding age cohort; and that women are less likely than men to complete university.

Women 15 years of age and over, not enrolled full-time in an educational institution, by level of schooling and training, for Ontario, 1971 (Statistics Canada, 1971)

Note: figures in brackets () represent corresponding values for men.
%'s represent distribution within age group.

Age groups	Elementary Less than Grade 9		Secondary Grades 9-13		Post-secondary		
					Non-university	University	
	No other training	Vocational training	No other training	Vocational training	Includes nursing, community colleges	Without degree	With degree
Total	29.9% (30.8)	1.5% (3.2)	45.0% (37.2)	3.7% (6.4)	12.3% (9.6)	4.4% (5.7)	3.2% (7.1)
15-19 yrs.	14.7 (18.0)	0.7 (1.0)	75.3 (72.8)	2.6 (2.8)	4.8 (3.4)	1.9 (2.0)	* *
20-24	10.6 (11.7)	0.7 (1.2)	57.0 (55.4)	4.4 (6.5)	17.2 (12.9)	6.2 (8.3)	3.8 (4.0)
25-34	17.2 (17.7)	1.2 (2.5)	48.1 (38.9)	4.7 (8.0)	17.1 (13.5)	6.1 (7.8)	5.6 (11.6)
35-44	28.0 (29.8)	1.6 (4.1)	45.9 (34.0)	4.0 (7.6)	12.5 (10.3)	4.6 (5.7)	3.3 (8.5)
45-64	36.0 (37.3)	1.8 (4.1)	41.6 (33.5)	3.6 (6.2)	10.8 (7.7)	3.8 (4.8)	2.4 (6.4)
65+	56.4 (60.8)	2.1 (4.2)	29.8 (22.9)	1.7 (2.7)	6.3 (3.1)	2.3 (2.7)	1.4 (3.6)

* less than 1%

A further analysis of the educational attainment figures for specific populations shows that there is a wide variation between language groups, although within each language group the pattern for each sex remains the same. In general, those women who speak English within their own home have higher attainment levels than those who speak French, and both these groups have higher attainment levels than those women who speak other languages. For example, among 20-24 year olds, 3% of English-speaking women have less than grade 9 education; while 12% of French speakers and 29% of speakers of other languages have the same educational level (Cook, 1976). These differences become less pronounced at the higher educational levels, and women of all language groups tend to be under-represented at the highest levels.

In rural areas, under-educated men are more numerous than women, but in the large urban areas of Ontario, under-educated women are more numerous (Thomas, 1976). The Indian and Metis women have the highest rate of under-education in Ontario.

Enrolment figures for full-time learners during 1971 are shown in the table below (Statistics Canada, 1971):

Women, 15 Years of Age and Over by Educational Attainment
by Enrolment in Educational Institutions
as % Distribution within Age Group for Ontario In 1971.
(Statistics Canada, 1971).

NOTE: figures in brackets represent corresponding distribution for men.

	Not enrolled full-time	Enrolled Full-time			
		Elementary less than grade 9	Secondary grades 9 - 13	Post-secondary Non-university	University
Totals	88.1 (85.3)	0.8 (1.0)	8.4 (9.6)	1.0 (1.0)	1.7 (3.1)
15-19	25.3 (22.3)	4.3 (5.9)	63.4 (66.0)	3.4 (2.1)	3.6 (3.5)
20-24	85.4 (74.1)	0.4 (0.6)	2.1 (4.9)	3.7 (4.3)	8.3 (16.1)
25+	99.0 (98.4)	0.3 (0.2)	0.3 (0.3)	0.1 (0.2)	0.3 (0.9)

The same pattern in educational attainment levels appears in these figures. In addition, the enrolment rates at the highest educational levels show an under-representation of women.

A further analysis of full-time enrolment figures indicates that as family income decreases, the rate of enrolment decreases for both men and women. However, the decline for women is greater than for men and is greatest for middle income groups and least for upper income groups. For men the decline is greatest in lower income groups and least in upper income groups (Cook, 1976).

The enrolment rate increases as the educational level of one or both parents increases for both men and women. This suggests that educational institutions could retain younger students (aged 15-21), and thereby increase enrolment figures, if some attention were paid to increasing the educational attainment level of the parents.

Enrolment rates for women tend to increase as the size of the urban community in which they live decreases (Cook, 1976).

Enrolment patterns by field of specialization at the university level indicate that women tend to enrol in greater proportions in health-related courses, education, the arts, humanities, and social services; and in the lowest proportions in engineering, applied sciences, law, and business administration (Cook, 1976; Ontario Statistics, 1976).

The enrolment statistics for Canada Manpower training programs for 1974-75 show that for all of Canada, 65% of participants were men and 35% were women. In Ontario, the corresponding distribution was 81% for men and 19% for women. These figures do not reflect the distribution of men and women within the Ontario labour force, nor the current differential in unemployment rates (Manpower Statistics, 1975). Men exceed women in overall occupational skill and apprenticeship programs. The only manpower programs (based on Canada-wide statistics) in which women outnumber men are the language skills program and Basic Training for Skill Development (BTSD) programs (Cook, 1976). BTSD programs are basically academic upgrading and life skills programs which allow participants to complete those elementary and secondary school skills required for further occupational training. This distribution of women in manpower programs (i.e. very low in occupational skill programs, high in academic and language skill programs) does not reflect the general educational attainment levels of men and women. The figures on page 10 suggest that men should be found in greater numbers in BTSD programs and women should be found in greater numbers in occupational skill programs. VanderVoet (1978) suggests that while encouraging women to enter manpower apprenticeship programs is a stated policy, in practice, women are actively discouraged and often refused assistance.

Unemployed women are generally more willing to be retrained than unemployed men. This was found to be particularly true for those women between the ages of 25 and 45 years (Arkansas, 1975).

Enrolment rates in part-time learning experiences are more difficult to determine. Figures available from colleges and universities make it clear that part-time learning is more important than full-time learning for women when compared to men. For example, at the undergraduate level 38% of full-time learners and 51% of part-time learners are women (Cook, 1976; Ontario Statistics, 1976).

Figures from school boards showing enrolment in continuing education programs indicate that women represent well over half of all part-time learners; that men and women are roughly equal in credit programs; and that women are twice as numerous as men in non-credit programs (Cook, 1976).

When all the available data were analyzed, the participation rates in part- and full-time learning appear to approximate the values shown in the following table (taken from Cook, 1976):

Enrolment Rates of Women in Part- and Full-time Programs at Schools and Universities. (Figures in brackets are corresponding rates for men)

Age groups	Rate of enrolment in full-time programs	Rate of enrolment in part-time programs
16-19 years	64% (71)	3% (4)
20-24 "	12% (24)	6% (8)
25-34 "	2 (4)	6% (8)
35-44 "	1 (1)	4% (5)
45-64 "	1 (*)	2% (3)

(*less than 1%)

Waniewicz (1974) estimated the numbers of part-time learners throughout Ontario from a representative sample and included in his figures such learning activities as on-the-job training; private technical and business schools; courses at community and cultural centres; special interest and sport clubs; educational T.V. and radio; and self-directed learning programs in addition to the traditional courses offered by formal educational institutions. His estimates indicate that adults of all ages participate in many learning activities which are not organized by the formal system. A breakdown of these estimates for men and women is shown in the following table (Waniewicz, 1974).

Participation Rates for Women in Part-time Learning Activities by Age Groups. (Figures in brackets are corresponding rates for men) Figures represent distribution within each age group

Age groups	Learners	Would-be-learners	Non-learners
18-20 years	36% (54)	30% (13)	34% (33)
21-24 "	47% (51)	23% (14)	30% (35)
25-34 "	28% (46)	29% (20)	43% (34)
35-44 "	27% (27)	21% (12)	52% (59)
45-69 "	19% (14)	17% (13)	64% (73)

The figures indicate that participation rates for women drop off more rapidly for the 25-34 year group than for the corresponding group of men.

A further examination of the data from Waniewicz (1974) indicates that more women prefer to participate in programs at community and cultural centres and on radio or T.V., and in self-directed programs, as much as in formal educational institutions. A similar preference is expressed by those with one or two children at home, by those who are homemakers, and by those who are retired. The implication in these data is that those who are tied to their home or local community by reason of home and family responsibility or by limited mobility are more likely to participate in non-credit learning activities either within their own home or in their immediate community. In addition, the figures on preference for credit and for job-related learning (discussed in the previous section) suggest that some of these women are involved in non-credit learning because there is nothing else available at the time and location they prefer. If credit or job-related programs were offered through their local community school, many more women might become participants.

In every set of data reviewed for this section showing enrolment trends in the general population, the group of women aged 25 to 34 years were consistently under-represented as both full- and part-time learners. The following table compares the distribution of women within the population as a whole; and within the populations of adult full-time and part-time learners (derived from Waniewicz, 1974 and Statistics Canada, 1971).

Age group	Women as % of total population within age group	Women as % of full-time learners within age group	Women as % of part-time learners within age group
15-19 years	49%	48%	40% (18-20 years)
20-24 "	50%	36%	49%
25-34 "	49%	29%	38%
35-44 "	49%	53%	50%
45-64 "	51%	63%	57% (45-69 years)

If these figures are compared to those given for participation by mothers in the labour force by the age of their youngest child (refer back to page 27), we find the same pattern prevails. Women between the ages of 20 and 34 years with young children at home are as under-represented in the labour force as they are in the learning population. Robison (1976) describes women who do not work outside their own home, as a large reservoir of potential learners and participants.

If we compare the age distribution of newly-arrived immigrant women (refer back to page 26) we find that many of this group also fall into the 25-34 age group. Therefore, when these women most need to be learning English and Canadian life skills, they are tied to their home and local communities by family responsibilities.

Several studies indicate that over 50% of women who participate in learning activities are employed outside their own home (N.Y. State, 1977; Bellenger, 1976). Since the participation rate for women in the labour force is only 44%, working women participate in educational activities more frequently than might be expected.

The age-related decline in participation rates (Riley, 1968; Waniewicz, 1974) is less for women than for men. Carp (1973) estimates that the decline in participation rates between the ages of 18 and 65 years is 20 percentage points for women (from 85% to 65%) and 38 points for men (from 90% to 52%).

Only six studies were found which provided data on the psychosocial characteristics of women learners. Richard (1976) found that young, single women were confident, practical and purposive as learners; while young married women with small children lacked self-confidence, sought personal fulfillment or a career through learning activities. Older married women with children in school or older, also lacked self-confidence and study skills and were mainly concerned with filling "empty time".

Laden & Crooks (1975) also found that older women in particular lacked self-confidence in learning situations.

Blunt & Thornton (1974), in studying the differences between participants and non-participants among Indian Women on reserves in B.C., found that participants tended to show a high degree of independence in relation to their relatives, while non-participants showed high dependence on relatives and high alienation from the larger society.

Skelhorne (1975) reported that mature women students (i.e. over 25 years) characteristically experience high anxiety and self-doubt over academic ability.

Several studies reported that mature women students, both full- and part-time, achieve a higher academic performance than mature men students (Bowen, 1975; Wilson & Lipinski, 1978). One study examined the records of male and female applicants and found that women exceeded the average academic performance by male applicants in all programs. The study concluded that female applicants are better qualified than male applicants but fewer apply for admission (Bowen, 1975).

In summary, a large proportion of women are active participants in a wide variety of full- and part-time learning programs. Their ability is equal to that of men but they tend to be under-represented in both vocational training programs and post-secondary institutions. This under-representation may be the result of many factors. Some of these are: socialization pressures within the society; the demands of current and/or anticipated roles; the organization and accessibility of educational programs; the support (or lack of it) for educational endeavours (Cook, 1976).

In general, those women who actively participate in learning programs are those who are in the upper socioeconomic strata; have a completed secondary school education or higher; are under the age of 40; speak English in their own home; can obtain the learning programs they want within their local community; work outside their own home; have no children (at home); and have some self-confidence.

Those women who are non-learners and non-participants are those who are over age 50; have less than grade 9 education; speak a language other than English in their own home; are in the lower socioeconomic strata; live alone in a large urban centre; and have more than five children.

Those women who are disposed to learn but find themselves unable to participate for a variety of reasons are those who have small children at home; are between the ages of 25 and 34; have more than grade 8 education but have not completed secondary school; have little self-confidence but do have a desire to improve the image they hold of themselves.

Women participate in educational activities less than men in the child-bearing/child-rearing years (ages 21-34) and more than men in the middle-aged and older years. Women tend to enrol in education to realize personal goals and become fulfilled in areas outside the spheres of activity (marriage/child-rearing, etc.) traditionally thought to occupy and satisfy them.

VI. Summary of Educational Conditions Desired by Sub-population

Twenty-two studies were reviewed to gather data about the conditions which promote or hinder the participation of women in educational activities. These have been summarized and are presented here as a composite picture.

Lehtonen (1975) found that the most common barriers or supports to participation could be sorted into three major categories: time or responsibility factors which include all those conditions and situations within the life of the learners; accessibility factors which include all those conditions, attitudes and situations within the educational institution or agency which a learner must cope with; and attitudinal factors which include all those beliefs, values and dispositions the learner holds toward both herself and the educational system.

In surveying the general population of Finland, Lehtonen (1975) found that, while the overall differences between men and women were not significant, the effect of children under 7 years was to increase the level of perceived obstacles related to responsibility and to increase the negative attitudes the learner holds about herself. The effect of increased age is to increase the perceived obstacles in all categories.

Johnstone & Rivera (1965) suggest that accessibility barriers (specifically costs, transportation and information) are highest for women of low socio-economic status; that responsibility obstacles are highest for women under 45 years of age; and that attitudinal obstacles are highest for women over 45 years and of low socioeconomic status. The only group of men reporting more obstacles than the corresponding group of women were those men over 45 and of middle socio-economic status.

For the purpose of the following discussion, we have divided the accessibility obstacles into access issues, support issues and learning issues. Many obstacles suggest services, structures or procedures which could be instituted by educational agencies to reduce or overcome the effect of the obstacles. Where appropriate, we have included these suggestions. Since all twenty-two studies reported widely varying proportions of women who experience

various obstacles, we have included statistical data only where this seemed highly significant.

Access issues are basically related to: knowing what is available, when and where; getting what is wanted or needed at the time and place it is wanted or needed; getting there; and paying for the service.

Knowing what is available, when and where, is an obstacle related to information. Women lack access to basic information about educational programs in general, about training and retraining opportunities, about support services, about what they can demand, and so on. Brochures come into the home but have little meaning to the recipients unless they have previous experience in adult education programs. Most women do not connect their daily needs to the learning opportunities available within their community. To do this, women need counselling and information services available to them at the local community level (Johnstone & Rivera, 1965; Maki, 1974; Waniewicz, 1974; Krakauer, 1976; Willis, 1977; Boggs, 1978; VanderVoet, 1978).

This problem of information extends beyond what is available and continues into the process for getting in, for getting what is wanted, and for managing the costs. VanderVoet writes (in relation to women on welfare) that:

> "...women need to gain some skills in dealing with institutions... Community Colleges, Boards of Education are all seen as places of authority and complex information which cannot be understood by an ordinary person ... Comprehensive information would help open up the channels between these institutions and the clients they are designed to serve. Generally, information about services which could be most helpful to clients is carefully guarded. Workers are given information and expected to make it available as they see fit for clients whom they decide might benefit...The erroneous assumption behind this carefully guarded information is that such services, if made known to the public, would be abused and that social service/education workers are the best judge of who needs the information." (pp.101-102)

Women who actually venture to apply for admission to an educational institution need counsellors and supportive administrative personnel who are tuned in to the needs of women and who can assist them throughout the admission/registration/initial entry stage. This is particularly true of under-educated women, immigrant women, women on public assistance, women over 40 years, women re-entering the educational system after a long absence, and women entering an unknown social institution for which their previous experience does not prepare them. These support services can be as simple

as finding the right classroom and as complex as obtaining financial assistance for day-care services (Steele, 1974; Brandenburg, 1974; Skelhorne, 1975; Richard, 1976; Astin, 1976; Krakauer, 1976; Willis, 1977).

Some of the services women would like to have provided by educational institutions are:

- reduction of fixed residency requirement
- admissions policies based more on recent life experiences and less on old transcripts
- more part-time programs for professional and vocational certificates
- flexible attendance requirements
- flexible class scheduling
- concentrated effort on part of administration to recruit women and to make them feel welcome
- courses offered in local community centres
- courses which do not require a prerequisite level of educational attainment.

These suggestions all relate to the issues of getting in and getting what is wanted at the time and place more appropriate to the learner. (Campbell, 1973; Waniewicz, 1974; Steele, 1974; Maki, 1974; Laden & Crooks, 1975; Skelhorne, 1975; Bellenger, 1976; White & Jillson, 1976; Willis, 1977)

Two major issues arise in this entry stage for women. First, many women do not have immediate access to convenient transportation services, and need either financial assistance to pay for transportation, good, relatively inexpensive transportation services from their local community, or the educational services located within their community (Maki, 1974; Waniewicz, 1974; Krakauer, 1976; Boggs, 1978). Robison (1976) says that educational providers must realize that transportation and street safety are factors in selection of educational programs by women.

Second, many women need some form of financial assistance to manage the costs of educational services. Financial costs are a greater obstacle for women of all classes and ages, than for men. This assistance could take the form of educational grants to mature women students, both full- and part-time, who are engaged in academic upgrading or vocational training; tax rebates for educational costs for part- and full-time women students; lower tuition costs; loans to women whether married or not. In most cases, financial assistance is not available to married women who are presumed, often erroneously, to be supported by their husbands. The greatest need for financial assistance with tuition is in the area of academic upgrading

and basic literacy for the under-educated woman on welfare assistance (Johnstone, 1965; Brandenburg, 1974; Maki, 1974; Waniewicz, 1974; Skelhorne, 1975; Astin, 1976; Krakauer, 1976; Robison, 1976; Richard, 1976; White & Jillson, 1976; Willis, 1977; VanderVoet, 1978).

Finally, women want a wide variety of courses, both traditional and non-traditional, credit and non-credit. Women tend to select a wider variety of courses than men which suggests that their enrolment numbers in any one course might be lower than anticipated. Within this variety of courses, women want courses especially geared to the needs of women (Maki, 1974; White & Jillson, 1976; Willis, 1977; VanderVoet, 1978).

Support issues relate to day-care, ongoing counselling services, and the basic attitudes of educational personnel toward women learners. These services, or the lack of them, may not prevent a woman from registering, but may discourage her from returning for future activities.

The issue of day-care or child care is one of great conflict. In many institutions, the administration does not perceive child care as being a service they are qualified to provide or, indeed, should provide. Most would prefer to have women arrange for these services with some other agency or to rent space to an outside agency willing to provide the service at no extra cost to the institution. This debate about who is responsible for costs cannot be resolved in this report. We can, however, report on the needs expressed by women learners.

In many of the studies reviewed, all respondents, both male and female, were asked to report on day-care as an obstacle. In such studies, between 15 and 25% of all respondents cite lack of day-care as an obstacle to participation (see for example, N.Y. State, 1977; Boggs, 1978). In those few studies which asked women, or better yet asked women with children under 12 years, the response was much higher. Richard (1976) reported day-care as the third most pressing obstacle for single parents (after time and money) and the fifth for young married women with young children (after time, role conflict, anxiety and money). Robison (1976) reported day-care as an obstacle for 34% of all women. This rate was higher in urban areas compared to rural areas and highest (51%) for women aged 26-35 years. Quinlan (1971) reported that 78% of women with preschool children would require day-care facilities. Other studies did not report directly on day-care but did report on obstacles such as "have difficulty getting away from home" or "too many

family responsibilities". These studies all report this type of obstacle as significantly higher for women than for men (Waniewicz, 1974; Johnstone, 1965).

VanderVoet (1978) and Skelhorne (1975) both report on the need for financial assistance with day-care costs. This need is particularly important for women on public assistance and for single parents.

VanderVoet (1978) also cites the lack of part-time child care services as a deterent to many women. These part-time services may be needed for only one morning per week, or regularly at such time as lunch hour and after four. At these times of day, many school-age children remain unsupervised and, as a result, are a source of concern to mothers who work or attend school full-time.

Another support issue for women, particularly mature women students, is the lack of an ongoing support structure which is separate from those provided for younger students. These might include supportive, crisis-oriented, or problem-solving counselling; a social area in which to meet women in similar circumstances; legal or financial advice; peer group counselling; counselling related to course selection, career planning, occupational information, further educational or training opportunities, self-assessment, and so on (Skelhorne, 1975; Astin, 1976; Bellenger, 1976; Krakauer, 1976; White & Jillson, 1976; Willis, 1977). These services are seen as means to assist women overcome their feelings of isolation and alienation from younger students, from the learning process, and from educational personnel.

Other support issues relate to the inflexible, stereotyped attitudes exhibited by educational personnel at both the administrative and instructional levels. These attitudes are too often negative and hence non-supportive for the woman student. In some cases, women are actively discouraged or refused assistance simply because they are women. Royce (1969) states:

> "...the men who run (educational institutions) need to be made aware of the problem of personal identity (which) is particularly acute for women because of a curious persistent inflexibility of the human mind towards them ... a cliche that tends to identify men as persons, but women only as women." (p.12)

Several studies urged educational institutions to establish, and make compulsory, staff training programs which would focus on staff attitudes toward women students and on the needs of women in general (Campbell, 1973; Skelhorne, 1975; Richard, 1976; Willis, 1977).

Finally, a common view expressed about support issues by several studies suggests that educational institutions could serve women best by having a special person or unit responsible solely for the needs and concerns of current and prospective women students. This could take the form of an affirmative action officer, a recruitment officer, a counselling service, a coordinator of women's programs, and so on. The various reports consider that this arrangement would do much to alleviate other obstacles and would give women a common reference point and a source of support for changes they wish to see implemented within the educational institution (Maki, 1974; Krakauer, 1976; Richard, 1976; White & Jillson, 1976; Willis, 1977; VanderVoet, 1978).

Learning obstacles relate to the style of teaching, to the lack of learning skills, to being unable to make effective use of program-related services, and to the general atmosphere within the learning group. These concerns are applicable to all adult learners but, since women often start with less self-confidence than men, they may need extra support. Some of these concerns could be dealt with through short-term courses which focus on study skills, essay writing, use of library and media services, formative evaluation and goal setting. Some concerns could be met through helping teachers learn how to provide an atmosphere conducive to adult learning: how to draw on and be responsive to the life experiences of students; how to work with such specific groups of adults as the under-educated, the disadvantaged, those with learning disabilities or perceptual disabilities; and how to work creatively with both traditional and non-traditional content. This suggests that every educational institution should provide in-service training to continually improve the skills of those who teach adult learners (Skelhorne, 1975; Richard, 1976; Willis, 1977).

Responsibility or time-related obstacles, while not under the direct control of the educational institution, need to be taken into account when planning learning activities for women. The most important of these issues relate to time, money and energy, and to how a woman allots these among her various roles. Since many women students have several roles which are more or less full-time, they are often faced with conflicts which must be solved on a day-to-day basis. Each time a conflict arises, the woman must make a decision about where her priorities lie for that day. Most women place family responsibilities ahead of education with regard to time, money and energy (Marienau & Klinger, 1977). If a woman makes a choice in favour of her family and denies her own needs, she may feel resentful; if she makes it in favour of

her own needs, she may feel guilty. Educational institutions can help women in such situations by providing a variety of alternatives in terms of course content and scheduling of classes (e.g., duration in hours and weeks, time of day or year); by allowing more flexibility in attendance requirements and in meeting assignment deadlines; and by providing opportunities for part-time credit programs (Waniewicz, 1974; Maki, 1974; Brandenburg, 1974; Skelhorne, 1975; Richard, 1976).

Skelhorne (1975) suggests that women, particularly women over 30 years, experience more obstacles on entering and completing educational programs than men. She also suggests that women students experience different responsibilities obstacles at different times in their lives. Some of these are:

- coping with pre-school children but having evenings free
- being home with school-age children in the late afternoon and evening but having daytime hours free
- supervising adolescent children on evenings and weekends
- responsibility for aging parents
- role conflicts, generally between the roles of mother, wife, student and worker
- emergency illnesses and accidents in the family
- managing family social events and celebrations
- finding time and space at home and getting family members to respect that time and space
- finding support from one's husband
- general decline in social activities which might provide support.

For these, and other reasons, we found it hard to make clear generalizations about women's needs in relation to their responsibility concerns.

One group of women does stand out as needing special consideration: those women who are single parents. When such women must also work to support their children financially, their burden of responsiblity becomes very great and they may need considerable support and assistance, particularly financial assistance. Many instances have been recorded in which sole support mothers were forced to go on welfare assistance to be able to get even partial financial assistance (Skelhorne, 1975; Richard, 1976; VanderVoet, 1978).

Attitudinal obstacles relate to the attitudes women hold toward themselves as learners and toward educational institutions. In their attitudes toward themselves, women tend to lack self-confidence as learners; to use self-defeating behaviour; to feel shame over perceived academic inadequacies; to feel "too old" or "childish" in relation to younger students; to feel guilty about their assertiveness; to hold expectations about their future achievement which are excessive; to be afraid to make mistakes and look "foolish"; and so on

(Johnstone, 1965; Letchworth, 1970; Waniewicz, 1974; Brandenburg, 1974; Skelhorne, 1975; Richard, 1976).

In terms of attitudes women hold toward educational institutions and personnel, they tend, at first, to be uncritical when discrepancies occur between "what is" and "what should be"; to be grateful for almost any service no matter how inadequate or inappropriate; and to be dependent and passive in relation to administrators, teachers and other students. Skelhorne (1975) reports a comment made by a university professor in which he states:

> "Mature students are fairly brain-washed. They have few expectations. Usually they're just glad to be able to take the course ... a big educational program should be undertaken to awaken them to their real needs, and by that I mean, they'd benefit from counselling, knowing how to use library facilities, and having other amenities that would make their (educational) experience more meaningful." (p.8)

Skelhorne (1975) goes on to suggest that what most mature women students need is to be more perceptive about the distinctions between "what is" and "what ought to be", and to be able and willing to demand that any incongruencies be corrected by the system.

Finally, three studies examined the outcomes arising from women's learning activities. These report that the most important outcome is a positive shift in the woman's self-concept and an increase in self-awareness, self-esteem, self-confidence, and self-reliance (all states of improved mental health). Other important outcomes relate to an increased sense of purpose and direction and a belief that one is able to exercise control over one's life; improved job status and marital relations; a closer family unit which is better organized; a re-evaluation of life roles; and some resolution of the conflicts arising from multiple roles and "second shift" life styles (Laden & Crooks, 1975; Astin, 1976; VanderVoet, 1978).

In summary, women face at least four types of obstacles in their experiences as students. Some obstacles relate to the difficulties of entering an educational institution -- knowing what is available, when and where, it is available, getting admitted, paying the costs, getting the courses desired at the time and place most convenient to the learner, and having some means for getting there. These obstacles can be partly overcome through counselling and information services made available at the local community level; through flexible admissions policies, programming and scheduling alternatives; through financial assistance of various types; and through inexpensive, convenient transportation services or courses held in local communities.

Some obstacles relate to staying in and completing educational programs -- completing all registration procedures; discovering how to function as a student; finding support for oneself; finding administrative or instructional personnel who are understanding and accepting; and being relieved of the most important responsibility issues related to finances and child care. These can be partly overcome by information and counselling services within the educational institution; at least one administrative person responsible solely for helping women cope and meeting women's needs; by inexpensive, competent child care services; assistance with the student role through short-term skill courses in essay writing, use of library services, etc.; and by training staff in teaching techniques for enhancing adult learning and in being aware of attitudes which affect how one deals with women.

Some obstacles relate to the woman's responsiblities and allocation of time, money and energy between her home, work, family and/or studies. Educational institutions, while not being directly able to change such conflicts, can provide services which are flexible and supportive enough to allow each woman to resolve her conflicts without unnecessary pressure from institutional policies.

Some obstacles relate to the attitudes women hold about themselves as learners and about educational institutions. These can be partly overcome through supportive counselling and teaching; through activities which allow new students to become aware of her own strengths and weaknesses; and through positive changes in the attitudes of educational personnel, community members and the learner's family.

VII. Recommendations

If the Commission recommends that additional resources be directed to the education of women, then the following recommendations are suggested for publicly-funded agencies providing education programs for adults:

1. Funds should be provided to maintain cooperative counselling services for adult learners within the local community; that such services should be capable of responding to the special needs of women who wish to return to the educational system and/or to enter or re-enter the labour market; and that such services should provide all the information and other assistance necessary to help women plan and implement educational activities related to occupational preparation, career planning, family needs, personal growth and community participation.

2. Agencies should cooperate to provide comprehensive and up-to-date advertising which would focus on information about educational programs, training opportunities, counselling and other program-related services, available within the community; and that such advertising should be done as frequently as possible and by as many different communications media as possible.
3. Agencies should examine their administrative policies and procedures to determine whether any of these are inadvertently creating obstacles to the full participation of women in educational activities.
4. Admissions policies for all credit programs should allow full credit for relevant work and life experiences and that publicly-funded adult education agencies should provide the services necessary to evaluate and certify such experiences.
5. Both part- and full-time credit and non-credit programs should be provided in scheduling patterns which account for the preferences of women learners and would-be learners; for example, both full- and part-time alternatives, both day and evening classes, courses offered in Spring and Fall terms particularly and in larger blocks of time with fewer class meetings.
6. A broad range of credit and non-credit programs should be offered to women in areas that are both traditional and non-traditional; that more programs be offered in the areas of literacy, academic upgrading, and occupational training; and that a variety of courses be offered to immigrant and ethnic women in languages other than English.
7. Programs for women should be provided in easily accessible community locations and that programs offered in less accessible locations be serviced by inexpensive and frequent public transportation.
8. Programs for women should be offered at as low a tuition as possible.
9. Greater financial assistance should be provided to women, irrespective of marital status, who are seeking either full- or part-time learning programs, to help offset the costs of tuition, books, child care, transportation, and other expenses.
10. Programs for women should be offered with a minimum of prerequisites in terms of formal educational credit.

11. Agencies should be encouraged to provide space and/or funds to establish child care services, or to provide such services directly, in or near educational facilities; that child care services should be available to participants in all credit programs; and that child care services be available for both part-time and full-time learners.
12. Child care services should be provided for school-age children, both at lunch and after school, at the local school.
13. A variety of special educational programs should be provided to women at the point of re-entry to the educational system to assist them in increasing their self-confidence and decreasing their fear of competition and failure; to acquire the necessary study skills for success; to learn how to use the library and other educational services; to write essays; and so on.
14. Counselling services should be provided within the educational institution, to assist registered women students with their concerns related to their participation in learning programs.
15. Each educational institution should provide at least one person within its administrative offices who would be responsible solely for the concerns of women students.
16. All educational institutions should provide in-service training opportunities for administrative and instructional personnel to assist them in working with women more effectively and in less stereotyped ways.
17. Teacher training institutions and boards of education should provide pre-service and in-service training programs for guidance counsellors which would examine traditional and non-traditional approaches to working with girls, and which would alert them to the sexist stereotyping which often occurs in public and secondary school programs and may adversely affect the future participation of girls in the educational system.

IMMIGRANTS

I. Definition of Subpopulation

The term "immigrants" is used to describe two overlapping groups of individuals: those who are foreign-born and immigrate to Canada; and those whose ethnic origin is non-English/non-French.

Ethnic origin is determined on the basis of the country of birth of the nearest ancestor on the male side born outside North America. Ethnic persons are grouped as first generation (all foreign-born), second and third generation (all native-born).

Foreign-born persons are grouped by language speaking capabilities at time of entry: English, French, English and French, and other. They are also grouped by category of admission: independent, sponsored and nominated. A sponsored immigrant enters Canada on the condition that a close relative already here is willing to take responsibility for their care and maintenance for up to ten years. An independent immigrant must amass 50 or more points on the basis of an assessment of his education and training, personal qualities, occupational skill and demand, age, arrangement for employment, knowledge of English and/or French, and area of destination. A nominated immigrant must amass 50 or more points on the same basis and can acquire additional points if a relative already in Canada is willing to provide settlement arrangements here.

No attempt was made in this report to obtain detailed descriptions of specific immigrant or ethnic groups. There are far too many for the scope of this report and each group is unique and shows quite different characteristics. Several examples are given as part of descriptive data.

II. Search Strategy and Sources

The studies reported were found through a search of ERIC and EISO documents; through material from the Ontario Ministry of Culture and Recreation, the Ontario Ministry of Treasury, Economics and Intergovernmental Affairs, Statistics Canada, Manpower and Immigration Canada, and OISE; and through conversations with staff personnel in OISE, the Faculty of Education of the University of Toronto, and the Ministry of Culture and Recreation.

III. Subpopulation Size

The following figures indicate some of the statistical data available on immigrant and ethnic populations in Ontario (Ontario Ministry of Treasury, 1976; O'Bryan, Reitz and Kuplowska, 1976; Manpower and Immigration, 1974).

Canada:	Total population all persons	21,568,300
	Population of foreign-born	3,295,200
	% of total population	15.3%
	Population of ethnic persons	5,758,700
	% of total population	26.7%
	Total immigration (1974)	166,401
Ontario:	Total population all persons	7,703,100
	Population of foreign-born	1,707,400
	% of Can. foreign-born pop.	51.8%
	% of total Ontario pop.	22.2%
	Population of ethnic persons	2,388,000
	% of Can. ethnic pop.	41.5%
	% of total Ontario pop.	31.0%
	Total immigration (1974)	91,141
	% of Can. immigration	54.8%

Municipalities:	Foreign-born pop. as % of local population	Ethnic persons pop. as % of local population	Immigrants destined for area as % of total destined for Ontario
Toronto	43.6%	39.6%	54.8%
Hamilton	30.2	34.3	6.2
Ottawa	16.3	15.5	4.3
London		23.9	3.1
Windsor		31.5	2.6
Kitchener		44.3	1.3
Sudbury		26.0	0.7
All other areas		25.9	27.0

In 1974, the language capabilities of immigrants entering Ontario were:

English speakers	63.7%
French speakers	1.1
English & French speakers	1.6
Speakers of other languages	33.6

IV. Summary of Educational Needs

Learning needs could be divided into three major groups which develop out of three general stages through which the immigrant passes on his way to becoming either assimilated into the Canadian society, acculturated to it, or integrated with it. Assimilation occurs when the immigrant becomes fully absorbed socially into the receiving society by virtue of taking on the roles and customs, the language, and the value orientations of that society and losing those of his originating society. Acculturation occurs when the immigrant makes changes in the customs and habits brought from his native land, in the direction of those of the receiving society. Integration occurs when the immigrant has learned the roles and customs, value orientations and language of the receiving society without loss of ethnic identity.

The first stage in the process of adjustment to the receiving society is the reception stage in which the immigrant learns whatever is absolutely necessary for immediate survival and which lasts up to six months. Much of this stage is covered by federal programs and funding and is carried out by social service agencies which provide information, translation facilities, and whatever assistance is possible to find accommodation, employment, and so on. The needs and services in this stage tend to be crisis-oriented and reactive rather than growth-oriented and planned. The major needs appear to be for information and translation services which are adequately funded; services; a social service network which is integrated so that all services are located in neighbourhood centres; counselling and support services in the immigrant's language which focus on the unique concerns of the individual and which assists the individual to successfully understand the complexities of the Canadian social institutions (especially the school); referral services related to employment, occupational training and English language programs; legal and financial assistance; accepted and competent evaluation services which can assess foreign-acquired certificates, licenses, and professional degrees as well as occupational experience which is not Canadian; and social contacts which could alleviate the loneliness and confusion of a new life (Cafero, 1975; Bellenger, 1976; Chisholm, undated; Pitman, 1977; Richmond, 1974; Ontario Ministry of Culture and Recreation, 1976).

The second stage is an orientation period which lasts up to five years and in which the immigrant has an opportunity to acquire English as a second language, to learn about Canadian customs and social institutions, and to make long-range plans allowing him to become less dependent on relatives and social services. The needs of this stage appear to include: English language programs; training, retraining and skill upgrading programs in most occupational areas; academic upgrading; a wide variety of media resources for learning English outside formal classes; programs and services which focus on urban living, Canadian customs and social institutions; services which focus on money management, problem solving, decision making, legal issues, and such maintenance concerns as health, nutrition, schooling for children, legal responsibilities of parents, and so on; plus a wide range of activities which focus on personal and creative interests, personal growth, self-esteem and self-confidence, recreational and social opportunities, group action and community participation.

Federal and provincial funds cover some of these activities. Many of these programs already exist, although not enough opportunities are available, particularly in rural and small urban areas, and for women, older adults and undereducated adults. Most of these needs translate directly into learning needs and part-time educational activities of short and medium duration (Bellenger, 1976; Chisholm, undated; Pitman, 1977; Greene, 1972; Richmond, 1974; Ministry of Culture and Recreation, 1976).

In conversations with staff members at the Ministry of Culture and Recreation[1], it became apparent that one of the greatest needs was for day-care facilities associated with ESL programs throughout the province. Women with preschool children cannot attend these classes unless their children can be cared for at minimal or no cost to the family. In families in which the income of the mother is essential, it is not unusual to find that school-age children attend school irregularly so that mother can get out to classes or to work.

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[1] Conversations with Lillian Butovsky, Editor of TESL Talk, and Edna Rigby, Co-ordinator of the ESL Program for Mothers and Preschool Children, held in March, 1978 at the Ministry.

There is a need to provide an orientation to Canadian customs and social institutions, normally a component of most ESL programs, to those immigrants who are English speakers on arrival here.

There is a need to provide flexible hours for class sessions to accommodate shift work. There is a need to accept flexible attendance patterns to accommodate seasonal difficulties. Women with preschool children find it hard to attend regularly from January to March. However, this time period is very acceptable to seasonal workers such as farm hands and construction workers.

The third stage is characterized by stability and adjustment to Canadian conditions and finds the immigrant with more leisure time and greater concerns about his satisfaction with the quality of his life. The needs which are related to this stage are for recreational, social and cultural activities within each ethnic group, which could also lead to integration with the larger society. These latter activities might include forming and maintaining cultural organizations (both ethnic and integrated), joining voluntary or fraternal organizations, volunteer work in the community and so on.

In educational terms, this stage is characterized by needs related to the maintenance and retention of the ethnic language and cultural traditions of each ethnic group. Educational activities might include general interest and cultural appreciation courses in ethnic languages; upgrading ethnic language courses for second and third generation; general interest and academic subjects in ethnic languages, and so on.

An extensive study by O'Bryan, Reitz and Kuplowska (1976) on non-official languages, indicates that 71% of the ethnic population perceives language retention as desirable. The problems related to this need are: general decrease in use of ethnic languages; loss of ethnic traditions, customs and traditional religious beliefs; and loss of cohesion within the ethnic community. Chinese, Greek, Italian and Portuguese groups report a greater need for language retention than other groups. The major reasons given for supporting language retention policies were to maintain traditions and customs, for the value of having a second language, and as a means to support community needs. Parents were identified by 43% of respondents as the primary agent responsible for teaching ethnic languages. Over 40% of all respondents felt that such programs should

be financed by the Canadian taxpayer. This suggests that parents or members of the ethnic community could organize and teach ethnic language programs, through community facilities such as schools, under federal, provincial or municipal funds. A conversation with Keith McLeod, Editor of the magazine, Multiculturalism,[1] pointed out the necessity of responsible consultations between school personnel and members of the ethnic communities, to ensure that any implemented language programs not damage the organizational fabric of the ethnic community by usurping functions which now belong to community cultural organizations.

The Pitman report (Pitman, 1977) on racial relations in Metropolitan Toronto recommended that the educational system offer a more effective support system to ethnic students and to the total family unit, particularly when parental fears undermine students, when the family is experiencing shock, or when there is conflict between parental values, rights, traditions and customs and those espoused by the larger society through the schools. This would involve local schools in the development of integrated programs which could reach out and educate the entire community. Such educational programs are needed to challenge and change misconceptions and stereotyping of immigrants, particularly the visible minorities. Pitman points out that cultural retention is a matter of choice and a right in this country. Race, however, is not a matter of choice; it is a visible fact which cannot be assimilated. Integration of all immigrants into the Canadian society involves changes, adjustments and learning by both immigrant groups, members of the dominant cultural group, and already established ethnic groups. Recommendation 5.3 of the report states, in part, that the Council of Metropolitan Toronto should assist area school boards "...to secure adequate funding from higher levels of government for the purpose of: ...(d) mounting a program of community education to serve both children and parents, in the context of the community school model, with racial harmony as a central theme".[2]

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[1] Conversation with Keith McLeod, staff of the Faculty of Education of the University of Toronto and Editor of Multiculturalism, held in March 1978 at OISE.

[2] Walter Pitman (ed.), Now is not too late (Toronto: Municipality of Metropolitan Toronto, 1977), p. 199.

Recommendation 6.4[1] suggests that a network of centres be developed to provide service delivery to recently arrived immigrants which would include the services of the police, federal and provincial government, the Human Rights Commission, the Ombudsman's Office, voluntary agencies and so on. These centres should be visible, accessible and non-threatening and should offer social services, information, counselling and interpreting services in addition to promoting multicultural and multiracial understanding and discouraging conflict.

One further need which must be considered was expressed by Dr. Aaron Wolfgang of OISE[2] and by the Pitman report (Pitman, 1977). This need relates to the professional development and continuing education of teachers, other school personnel, and school board officials. If the educational system is to provide services to immigrant and ethnic groups, at whatever level, teachers and those who come in contact with these groups, must have an understanding of such things as the nature of prejudice and stereotyping; the non-verbal communicating styles of various ethnic groups; the ethnic traditions and value orientations; and ethnic perceptions of the educational system.

In summary, the needs of immigrant and ethnic groups are varied. In the first few months after an immigrant arrives, he needs support services which allow him to survive and maintain himself in a new culture. Educational activities for this stage would be problem-centered, focus on useful information language acquisition and occupational preparation, and on assessment of foreign credentials and experience.

In the next few years, the immigrant appears to need a wide variety of educational activities and support services which focus on language acquisition, occupational training, academic upgrading, and understanding of and integration into the Canadian society. Support services required include child care facilities, information and translation services, and coordinating services within the network of community agencies and organizations.

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[1] Walter Pitman (ed.), Now is not too late (Toronto: Municipality of Metropolitan Toronto, 1977), p. 217.

[2] Conversation with Dr. Aaron Wolfgang, Associate Professor, Department of Applied Psychology, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, held in March 1978 at OISE.

The third set of needs relate to language retention and maintenance of cultural traditions, on integration into the Canadian society without loss of ethnic identity.

In addition, there are needs for professional development and continuing education programs for teachers and school personnel related to working with immigrants, racial and ethnic groups; for consultation between educational personnel and ethnic community members; and for the development of a network of community centres to provide better services to all groups of immigrants and to promote better multicultural and multiracial understanding within the entire community.

V. Summary of Characteristics of Participants

Immigrant and ethnic groups cannot be equated in characteristics except in a very general way. Most studies deal with specific groups and are difficult to compare. In addition, the differences within groups are often as great as those between groups. Seven studies yielded data about the educational characteristics of immigrant and ethnic groups in general.

Greene (1972) reported that immigrant males who learn English most rapidly: take an active part in the learning process; have made a definite decision to remain in Canada; have close friends who are fluent in English and are often non-ethnic; actively seek situations and employment requiring English; are not afraid to make mistakes in English; utilize many different resources; and choose to speak English rather than one language when there is a choice available.

Much of the available data focus on educational attainment levels at the time of entry into Canada. These levels vary for each group. In Italian, Greek, Portuguese and Slavic groups, more than 50% of the adult population (25+ years) have less than grade 9 education. In British, Jewish and western European groups, at least 60% of their adult population have more than grade 8 education. The East Indian group has an educational level which exceeds that of the average Canadian. (Ministry of Culture and Recreation, 1976; Richmond, 1974; Ziegler, 1972; Chisholm, undated).

The following data indicate these educational levels in more detail (O'Bryan, Reitz and Kuplowska, 1976; Richmond, 1974).

	Educational Level		
	0 - 8 years % of group	9 - 13 years % of group	13+ years % of group
Total foreign-born men only	41	38	21
Groups by mother tongue			
English " "	15	56	29
Slavic " "	57	23	20
Jewish " "	40	45	15
Italian " "	87	11	2
Western European	20	49	31
Greek/Portuguese	71	21	8
Asian/Black "	16	52	42
Other	35	34	31
Total ethnic groups			
1st generation	49	32	19
2nd generation	20	54	26
3rd generation	9	61	30

All studies agree that educational attainment level at time of entry into Canada is the best indicator of a number of other variables. Those with higher educational levels tend to be more mobile and often move away from their ethnic community. They tend to be more readily assimilated than those of lower educational levels (Richmond, 1974; Ziegler, 1972).

Those with higher educational levels tend to have more non-ethnic friends, to join non-ethnic organizations, work in non-ethnic settings. All these factors tend to decrease ties to the ethnic community and increase assimilation (Ziegler, 1972).

Those with higher educational levels tend to learn English (or French) more quickly, to be more knowledgeable about Canada, and to make greater use of cultural facilities and resources (Manpower and Immigration, 1974).

Those with at least high school ducation are less likely to be unemployed than those without high school education. However, at the highest educational levels, the difference in unemployment between immigrants and comparable native-born persons is particularly wide in the first three years. This is generally related to the lack of recognition or acceptance of professional qualifications and a delay in Canadian certification. Those with higher educational levels are more likely to achieve a high occupational status and income (Manpower and Immigration, 1974).

Those with higher educational levels are less likely, in some groups, to settle permanently in Canada, are more often critical and less satisfied with life in Canada, are less likely to identify with and become committed to life in Canada. It is only after 25 years in this country that those with higher educational levels become as satisfied as those with lower educational levels (Richmond, 1974).

In the first generation, those with higher educational levels rate themselves as less fluent in their native tongue than those with lower educational levels but more fluent in English. By the third generation, 71% of those with less than grade 9 education rate themselves as having some knowledge of their native tongue, while only 37% of those with more than grade 8 education rate themselves this way (O'Bryan, Reitz, and Kuplowska, 1976).

Concern for language retention is similar for all educational groups in the first generation. In second and third generations, those with higher educational levels are more likely to be concerned about language retention than those with less education (O'Bryan, Reitz and Kuplowska, 1976).

Those with higher educational levels are more likely to speak English to their spouse and children in the home. Among first generation Italians, 63% speak Italian exclusively to their spouse and 48% to their children in the home. Among second generation Italians, 78% speak English exclusively to their spouse and 77% to their children in the home (Ziegler, 1972; O'Bryan, Reitz and Kuplowska, 1976). All groups except Greek reported that use of the mother tongue in the home declines significantly within the first three years in Canada.

The second variable which is a good indicator of adjustment to life in Canada relates to residential experience in the country of origin; that is whether the individual lived in a rural or urban area. Those from rural areas who immigrate to an urban area in Canada, report a much higher number of problems in adjusting to life here. In general, those from rural areas are also those who have lower educational levels and fewer occupational skills on entry into Canada (Richmond, 1974; Ziegler, 1972).

Other data describing characteristics of learning participants show that more than 50% of immigrants took part in educational activities or some form of training during their first three years here. Of these, 45% took occupational or skill-related courses; 30% took English and 8% took French language courses; 17% took general education courses. Of those who took English language training, 58% reported a significant improvement in their command of the language as opposed to 41% of those who did not take such language courses. These figures do not include those in university or college full-time (Manpower & Immigration, 1974).

Those groups most concerned about language retention are the Chinese, Greek, Italian, Portuguese, Ukrainian, and Polish ethnic groups. Those agreeing with the federal government's policy on multiculturalism represent 68% of all ethnic respondents (O'Bryan, Reitz and Kuplowska, 1976).

Independent immigrants have higher educational levels than nominated or sponsored immigrants. They tend to be more mobile and more readily assimilated (Manpower and Immigration, 1974).

In summary, those immigrants with higher educational levels to start with are more likely to make use of educational services at all stages of adjustment to life in Canada. These persons are more readily assimilated into the main stream of Canadian life and, therefore, more likely to lose their ethnic identity. In later generations, those with higher educational levels are the ones most likely to want and to make use of language retention services.

Those with lower educational levels to start with have greater need for problem-centered, crisis-oriented services and remedial educational services. However, they are less likely to lose their ethnic identity, language or cultural traditions.

VI. Summary of Educational Conditions Desired by Subpopulation

The barriers to participation (for citations refer to previous two sections) include: language difficulties particularly among the elderly and the less well-educated; cultural differences and misunderstandings; lack of understanding of the Canadian system and values espoused by social institutions and agencies; lack of self-confidence; financial difficulties; interference of religious activities, family and job responsibilities; low educational attainment levels; lack of child care facilities; lack of recognition of training, education, certificates or experience from country of origin; rural orientations in urban areas; coming from an educational system not based on the British model; lack of understanding about what is expected of the learner by the educational system in terms of group involvement or independent action.

Some of these barriers cannot be controlled by the educational system. However, the system itself puts up a number of barriers to participation which include: lack of awareness of non-verbal communicating styles used and expected by various ethnic groups; lack of awareness of what is expected of the system by the learner (and his family); lack of awareness of the effect the system has on the learner; instability in funding; lack of day-care facilities; lack of information and interpreter services; lengthy questionnaires which must be completed (usually in English) as a condition of entry; lack of an evaluative service to assess foreign educational credits, certificates and other credentials; attendance requirement; inflexible scheduling; lack of consultative services between the educational system and the ethnic community; general lack of programs which combine ESL with academic upgrading at the lowest educational levels; entrance requirements to some occupational training programs which selectively exclude immigrants without the requisite educational attainment level.

VII. Recommendations

If the Commission recommends that additional resources be directed to the education of immigrants, then the following recommendations are suggested for publicly-funded agencies providing adult education:

1. Boards of education should establish a means for consulting members of the ethnic community and social service agencies with regard to types of educational services of value to the adult members of immigrant and ethnic groups.
2. Support should be given to Recommendation 5.3 of the Pitman report, Now is not too Late, which recommends that boards of education mount a community education program to serve students, families, and the community with racial harmony as the central theme.
3. Support should be given to Recommendation 6.4 of the Pitman report Now is not too Late, which recommends that a network of community centres be developed to provide integrated services to immigrant groups and to promote multiculturalism and multiracialism.
4. Boards of education should expand services for adult immigrant learners which focus on English as a second language, academic upgrading, Canadian customs and life skills, family and individual maintenance issues, information and counselling services related to learning activities.
5. Boards of education should explore ways and means for providing programs which combine English as a second language content with general interest programs and general interest topics in ethnic languages; and which focus on ethnic cultural traditions and values as well as language retention.
6. Support should be given to an expansion of day-care facilities associated with adult learning programs and an improvement in the adequacy and reliability of government funding for such facilities.
7. Boards of education should explore ways and means for providing greater flexibility in course scheduling and in attendance patterns at English as a second language and academic upgrading programs.
8. Boards of education and faculties of education should provide continuing education and professional development courses for teachers, school and school board personnel related to working with immigrant and ethnic groups, understanding their values, customs, expectations and communication patterns.

9. Boards of education should consider ways and means for reaching female and elderly immigrants who are at a disadvantage in Canada and who do not readily participate in traditional learning activities.
10. Boards of education should provide interpretation services for adult immigrants to facilitate their dealings with school personnel as parents of school children and as potential and/or actual students.
11. Boards of education should find ways to reduce the amount of "administrivia" related to registration and participation in learning activities, particularly questionnnires which must be completed in English.
12. Boards of education should work in conjunction with other educational, professional and occupational institutions to establish a service to evaluate and certify educational credits, occupational certificates and licences, professional credentials, and work experience which is non-Canadian.

NATIVE PEOPLE

(Indians, Metis, and Non-Status Indians)

I. Definition of Subpopulation

This section of the report is concerned with two distinct groups: status or treaty Indians and a group of native people composed of Metis, non-status Indians, and unregistered Indians.

II. Search Strategy and Sources

A computerized search was made of the ERIC and ONTERIS data bases which yielded very little in the way of need identification studies for these subpopulations. Officials in the Ontario Metis and Non-Status Indian Association (OMNSIA) and the Department of Indian Affairs and Northern Development (DIAND) were approached for further information.

III. Subpopulation Size

Education officials at the Ontario Metis and Non-Status Indian Association (OMNSIA) estimate that there are as many as 100,000 Metis and non-status Indians in this province. These are persons with Indian blood, but due to the specifications of the Indian Act are not considered registered Indians and thus are not legally entitled to treaty rights, reserve rights or funding under the Department of Indian Affairs and Northern Development (DIAND). They may have more Indian blood than registered Indians.

The Department of Indian Affairs and Northern Development reports that there were 64,690 registered Indians as at December 31, 1976. Of these, 39,083 lived on a reserve; 5,144 lived on crown land; and 20,463 lived off a reserve.

IV. Summary of Educational Needs

It is difficult to summarize the needs of a subpopulation defined as "native people". While it is clear that native people form a unique grouping in the larger Canadian population through cultural differences, their needs are as diverse as those of the Canadian population in general. What follows in these sections are summaries of need which are of particular importance to native people. In addition to these needs, different parts of the subpopulation may have the same educational needs as any other population presented in this project.

A second difficulty with this population from the point of view of the Commission on Declining School Enrolments is that the federal government, through treaty obligations, bears a direct responsibility for a part of the native population. However, the direct responsibility does not include the Metis, unregistered Indians or, in some settings, the registered Indians. The needs have been presented irrespective of who bears the direct responsibility. In some cases the need will be the responsibility of the federal government; in others it is the responsibility of the provincial government; and in still other areas it is unclear as to who bears the direct responsibility,and the programs will need to be negotiated intergovernmentally..

It is important to note that the educational needs of native people cannot be separated from their economic needs nor their needs which derive from their dealings with the variety of governmental agencies charged with responsibility for their welfare. The theme of the relationship of training needs to economic and political problems is a predominant aspect of most of the studies reviewed.

Perhaps the basic educational need for native people is that of basic literacy. Thomas (1976) in her basic study on literacy needs reported that the statistics from the 1971 Census indicated that for the population of 15 years of age and over, who were not attending school full-time and who had less than grade 9 and no other training, there were 66.6% of Indian and Inuit people who were functionally illiterate. This percentage amounts to approximately 98,935 of native people across Canada. For Ontario alone, 19,090 functionally illiterate native people are identified, the highest total for any of the provinces

or territories.

One special setting which contains large numbers of native people needing basic literacy training is in the correctional institutions. While figures were not readily available for Ontario, figures show that while native people account for only 10% of the population in Saskatchewan, 67% of the jail population in the Prince Albert Correctional Centre is native (Association of Metis and Non-Status Indians of Saskatchewan, 1976). Similarly, Indians in 1975 used the courts and penal institutions at rates up to 11 times the Manitoba provincial average (Ottawa Citizen, October 10, 1976). Although no comparable data were available for Ontario at the time of writing, there is every reason to expect that the number of native people in Ontario correctional institutions is highly disproportionate, and this is likely to be especially true in the northwestern and northeastern regions of the province.

In addition, government figures for 1975 show that of Manitoba's prison population, 56% have elementary school education or less, and in the Brandon and Dauphin correctional institutions the rates are 60% and 72% respectively (Department of Health and Social Development 1975). Given that over 19,000 or 66.6% of Ontario's registered Indians are estimated to be functionally illiterate and as many as 80% of the Metis and Non-Status Indian population of the Province (Schwager, 1974), current information suggests that Ontario's native inmates -- in both federal and provincial institutions -- comprise a learner population which urgently requires literacy and adult basic education.

Another area of educational need is the training of workers for alcohol related programs. The problem of native alcoholism has been so sufficiently analyzed in recent years that a detailed discussion is unnecessary. What is clear is that adult education programs which attempt to deal with this critical problem are essential. Some work within the past three years, much of it sponsored by the Federal Department of Health and Welfare through the non-medical use of drugs program, has demonstrated an important role for adult education. Within Ontario several programs have been sponsored for native people by the Addiction Research Foundation, particularly by the ARF regional office in Kenora.

From the native point of view, one of the most important areas

of need is in the preservation and transmission of native culture. Statements of cultural need appeared in many reports. Perhaps one of the most important studies of Metis and Non-Status Indian Needs was made in 1974 by Schwager, Auger, and Moffit (1974). They interviewed 374 Metis and Non-Status Indians in Northeastern Ontario in both urban and rural settings over a 6-month period. The results argue strongly for significantly increased adult education services for Ontario Metis and Non-Status Indians based both on past participation rates and the potential for future participation. Schwager et al. (1974) found that 73% of their sample expressed a desire to learn their native language (Cree or Ojibwa). One can contrast this interest with current abilities to speak a Native language as reported in the study. Schwager found that only 13% of the sample reported being able to speak a Native language well, while a further 6% reported being able to speak some Cree, and 8% reported being able to speak some Ojibwa. More Native people reported being able to speak at least some French (25%) than some Native language. Schwager et al. argued that language is the basis of culture, and that the need for instruction in native languages as a means for reinforcing culture was very important.

The findings in the Schwager study are similar to an analysis by Bertin (1974) of 186 briefs submitted by native groups in Ontario. Bertin found the predominant statements of educational need to include: (1) the need to reinforce native cultures and identities; and (2) to provide the native person the option of living in either the Native life style or in the general job market.

A policy paper for the National Indian Brotherhood (1972) identified two important educational needs as: (1) a staff in programs for Indians who had an awareness of local language and history; and (2) process whereby educational needs may be locally identified.

Special educational needs have been identified for positions of leadership for Native People. These are categorized as:
(1) Band training, (2) training for school committees, and (3) training for local government.

Band training refers to those services of an instructional nature provided to and for members of Band Councils or Band authorities and to Band staff. The last group includes administrative staff such as Band

managers, Band secretaries, clerical, stenographic and financial management people (Department of Indian Affairs, 1976). Each of the 10 districts in Ontario is responsible for approving training applications in its own area. The department is in the process of revising its approach to training. A recent meeting called for greater Band input into the design of specific training programs to suit their particular developmental needs, and the establishment of local training committees at Band, District and Regional levels to evaluate training and set priorities. More "in community" workshops and training sessions are called for, with the problem of the lack of residential facilities cited as a major drawback. The increased use of local facilities such as schools is possible.

In 1975-1976 there were 34 school committees in Ontario -- down significantly from a high of 62 school committees in 1974-1975, due probably to consolidation. To ensure competent native participation in such school committees, training is needed.

Similar training needs have been identified for individuals elected to positions in local governments.

The final area of needs, specifically identified, are those related to job skills. The data on employment and relocation in Ontario are more difficult to interpret, yet some general trends are indicated. Employment-related training programs provided by the Indian and Eskimo Affairs Program of the federal government have decreased dramatically in the past two years. On-the-job training, for example, appears to have increased irregularly, peaking in 1974-1975. The rates then fell dramatically by 100 approved applications to the level originally funded in 1971-1972. A similar pattern is evidenced for regular employment, however its decline from 1974-1975 to 1975-1976 was by a massive 1,526 applications. Family relocation figures also follow this trend, peaking in 1974-1975, and then decreasing to less than one-seventh of the previous year's rate. Apprenticeship training and individual term employment experienced high rates in 1974-1975 and also decreased drastically the following year, the latter by nearly 2,000 approved applications. Decreases of these magnitudes are surely related more to restrictions in funding than to any decrease in need.

V. Summary of Characteristics of Participants

Few of the studies examined for this population contained descriptive statistics of the demographic characteristics of participants. Most of the programs are designed for seriously disadvantaged adults.

VI. Summary of Educational Conditions Desired by Subpopulation

There were no specific large scale studies of desired educational conditions. There were findings in the studies examined which indicate several important themes. These desired themes can be characterized as: (1) the staff and direction of educational programs should include native people or other individuals who are familiar with Indian languages and culture; (2) programs should be conducted in the community rather than in distant urban centres; and (3) job related training should be related to areas where real jobs exist. Since such a large part of the population has limited literacy skills, it is clear that materials in educational courses should be designed with this limitation in mind.

VII. Recommendations

If the Commission recommends that additional resources be directed to the education of native people, then the following recommendations are suggested for publicly-funded agencies providing adult education:

1. Particular attention should be paid to the needs of the Metis and non-registered Indian populations, as these populations are not served by the federal government.
2. Negotiations with the federal government should be continued to provide educational programming for all native people on an integrated basis, such as through the Indian Friendship Centres.
3. High priority should be given to the extreme need for literacy training.
4. Educational programs should be conducted by native people wherever possible.
5. Educational programs should be conducted in local communities.
6. Educational programs should be integrated with social, cultural, and economic development.
7. Educational programs in job skills should be directed toward real jobs in the local communities.
8. Local leaders in Bands should continue to be provided with support for making decisions about the nature and kind of educational programs.

UNDEREDUCATED ADULTS

I. Definition of Subpopulation

The number of definitions for this subpopulation is equal to the number of studies reviewed. That fact does not reflect a disagreement about an acceptable definition as much as it reflects the implicit requirement of researchers to define the population in particular ways in order to answer specific questions. Audrey Thomas (1976, p.2) discusses the various definitions in Canadian society. (Those definitions sometimes referring to adults with less than Grade 5 and sometimes with less than Grade 9). She also discusses the concept of illiteracy which defies translation into so simple a definition as grade level achieved (pp.4-5).[1]

All of the works reviewed here were studies of participants or eligible participants in "adult basic education" programs. When appropriate, citations in the summary sections will refer to the specific definitions of the subpopulation used in each study.

Michael Brooke's thesis (1973) is an Ontario study; the other studies cited are from the U.S.

II. Search Strategies and Sources

With one exception, the materials reviewed here were referenced in the ERIC system although some of the sources were known to us before we ran the computerized literature search. The exception is a paper which was presented this year (1978) at the Adult Education Research Conference, April 5-7, in San Antonio, Texas (Boggs, Buss & Yarnell).

III. Subpopulation Size

Audrey Thomas (1976,p.16) reported that according to the 1971 census there were 1,446,575 persons in Ontario who were 15 years of age and older, were not attending school full-time and who had less than Grade 9 and no other training. At the time of this writing Statistics Canada had not yet calculated a comparable figure from the 1976 Census.

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[1] See also, Cairns, J.C. Adult functional illiteracy in Canada. Convergence, 1977, Vol. X, No.1.

IV. Summary of Educational Needs

The bulk of the studies which came to our attention for this subpopulation were designed to describe participants. Boggs et al. (1978), however, asked Ohioans eligible for Adult Basic Education Program admission (citizens 16 years old and older who had dropped out of school) about possible motivation for their interest in attending. (25.1% of those eligible indicated such an interest). The findings indicated:

36.9% wanted to "finish high school/complete education",
30.5% wanted to "get more education and better myself",
14.0% wanted "basic education: reading, math, writing",
8.2% wanted "to get a better job",
5.4% wanted "vocational/technical reading and writing",
5.0% indicated "other".

It should be made explicit in passing that participants (see following sections) and would-be participants (Boggs et al.) conceive of the value to themselves of the ABE Program in the U.S. primarily in terms of meeting general education goals, not occupational goals as the programs were originally intended to be used.

V. Summary of Characteristics of Participants

Richardson and Nyer (1974) sampled ABE participants in Texas and reported the primary reasons adults cited for attending were:

just to get an education
personal improvement
improvement of social relations
acquisition of particular skills and knowledge

In a study done at the University of Missouri (1972) participants in adult basic education programs were asked what they hoped to get out of their work in the program. The most frequently cited intents were:

28% to pass GED;
20% to learn to read and write;
14% to learn more than I know now;
13% to learn what I need to get a job.

Kent (1972), in a sampling of participants in ABE programs in the U.S., found that...

8% did not want high school credentials, but
60% wanted to go on to college, and
70% wanted vocational/technical training.

The Kent study looked only at courses pitched at the Grade 8 level and below. The majority (54%) of participants in these courses, however, had completed more than Grade 8 previously.

Richardson and Nyer (1974) looked at the relationship of various characteristics of ABE participants to (1) enrolment, (2) attendance, and (3) completion behaviors of those participants. Of note here is the finding that previous school grades were highly correlated to completion rates; only 9% of those with below average grades in previous school situations completed ABE. This study also asked about the participant's previous stances toward school. Fourteen percent had received a high school completion credential, 60% had left elementary or secondary school but wanted to continue, and 26% had left school and didn't want to continue.

Richardson and Nyer (1974) also found that enrolment in courses geared to Grade 8 and below were populated by 62% females and 38% males. Osso (1973), in an analysis of all ABE participants in the U.S., found the overall enrolment of females to be 57% as compared to 43% males.

Osso (1975) reported that of the 822,000 ABE participants in the U.S. during that year, 215,000 had used their ABE work to accumulate a credential or gain enrolment in another educational institution. The range of credentials included obtaining a Grade 8 diploma, passing G.E.D. test, or graduating from high school.

Other observations Osso made of the programs were that three times as many persons participated in urban programs as participated in rural ones. Twice as many classes were offered in the evening as in the daytime. Fifty-four percent of the participants attended programs that were located in school buildings -- elementary and junior high facilities being used most frequently. Regarding general enrolment figures, Osso found that the largest enrolment by age was in the 16 to 24 group (292,000) with the second largest group falling in the 25-34 year category (225,000). According to Osso, that accounts for 63% of all participants and the pattern of diminishing enrolments with increasing age continues beyond these age groups.

Osso in the same study (1975) reported how ABE participants in the U.S. interpreted the program as being of value to them in terms of "recognized personal achievements". Although not all participants responded to the question involved, the figures cited carry an impact when it becomes clear that these thousands of adults view their ABE work as enabling them to perform critical tasks in our society:

26,304 said they registered to vote for the first time;
5,986 said they gained U.S. citizenship;
16,134 said they obtained driver's licenses; and,
82,822 said they had received income tax form training for the first time.

Richardson and Nyer (1974) present the most sophisticated study in this group. Again, they found that participants generally did not express a need for job training, but did value education highly for its own sake. Participants with the highest attendance and completion rates had (1) enrolled themselves in the program (i.e., had not been recruited by another person), (2) had found out about ABE by reading about it, and (3) had friends in the program. Participants with higher self-concepts had higher completion rates. And, those adults with higher participation rates were characterized by being employed, having higher income than their colleagues and having higher occupational prestige. An intriguing finding is the report that participants who had spouses with 8 to 11 years of education had higher completion rates than those whose spouses had 7 years or less, or 12 years or more of schooling completed.

Boggs, et al., (1978) compiled contrasting profiles for Ohioans who were eligible but not interested in attending ABE and Ohioans who were eligible and interested.

Eligible and Interested	Eligible and Not Interested
younger	55 years old plus
non-white	white
employed	unemployed
9 years of school, plus	9 years of school, plus
not homeowners	homeowners
mobile[1]	not mobile[2]
	female
	married
	without school-age children

Brooke (1973), in studing drop-outs in Ontario adult basic education programs, also drew a profile of persons who discontinued as opposed to those who stayed on. He reports the "discontinuers" more often:

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[1] moved at least once in the last 5 years.

[2] had not moved in the past 5 years and probably closer to 20 years.

were single
were young
had few or no children or other dependents
had fewer commitments
had repeated lower grades
had fewer favourable school experiences
had fewer friends in school
had less rapport with teachers in Grade 6 and up
had higher proportion of poor and very poor relations with rest of family
came from less emotionally stable family
came from a family of 8-plus persons
found it difficult to adjust to colleagues and cooperate with teachers

Interestingly, Brooke found no differences in intelligence, income or prior education between those who continued and those who dropped out.

The Boggs, et al., study looked especially at how ABE eligibles had become aware of the programs, if at all. Fifty-nine (59.6%) percent of the sample had heard of the programs. Of those, 50.9% had received their information from "impersonal or secondary" (p.9) sources; newspapers, TV and radio, magazines, books and brochures. "Primary word-of-mouth sources" (p.9) (relatives, friends, neighbours, children, fellow workers, etc.) were credited with being the information source 22.9% of the time. Agencies, such as local schools and local ABE programs, were cited in only 7.9% of the responses as a source of information about the programs.

VI. Summary of Educational Conditions Desired by Subpopulation

After Boggs, et al., (1978) established that 25.1% of the respondents were interested in attending ABE courses if they were available, he asked that interested group what conditions would facilitate their attendance. A major concern was the proximity of the classes to the respondent's home; 48% said the classes should be within 1 to 3 miles and less than 30 minutes away. Twenty-six percent were willing to travel further and longer, while 23% said distance and time were not important. Babysitting or day-care services were needed by 48.8% of the respondents. Thirty-five percent said they would need to use public transportation to get to class. Concerning the preferred time of day classes, the study found that morning and evening or night hours were equally suitable, but afternoon hours were least popular.

For that portion that responded either (1) that they had

considered ABE enrolment but had decided against it in the near future, or (2) indicated they were not interested at all, the Boggs, et al., study asked why the respondents felt or decided as they did. The responses came in nearly identical categories, but with varying strengths:

Barriers cited	(1) Considered, but not now	(2) Not Interested
Too old	31.9%	44.7%
Too busy; no time; work prevents it	13.7%	13.6%
Not interested, not necessary	13.2%	17.1%
Poor health	9.8%	11.4%
Family responsibilities	9.5%	6.2%
Other	21.9%	----

(It should be noted that the Boggs, et al., sample found:

7.2% of Ohioans eligible for ABE were between 16-24 years of age
9.1% " " " " " " " 25-34 " " "
10.2% " " " " " " " 35-44 " " "
18.8% " " " " " " " 45-54 " " "
23.7% " " " " " " " 55-64 " " "
31.0% " " " " " " " 65+ years).

Richardson and Nyer (1974) focused on learning environments including staffing of ABE classes to discern which conditions were most conducive to higher attendance rates. They found that as the class size dropped below 20, the higher the attendance rates were. Further, attendance rates were significantly higher when teachers were not certified, had not completed college degrees and when they were not employed as public school teachers (p.58, Table 22).

In an effort to determine what kinds of teacher training was needed for adult basic education teachers in the U.S., the University of Missouri (1972) asked ABE participants a number of questions about which teacher characteristics they found most helpful. The respondents reported their first value was to have a teacher who knew the subject well. Valued second was a teacher who was friendly, liked the class, listened to students and tried to understand them. When asked which type of teaching they liked best the largest response came for having the teacher work individually with the students. The response which was chosen almost as frequently reflected a preference for individual

assignments with the freedom to work at one's own pace. While 53% of the respondents preferred one of these two methods, only about 17% of the respondents said they preferred to have the whole class doing assignments simultaneously and correcting the work in the class. And, when asked which special services of the program had been helpful to them, the participants noted counselling most frequently (28%). The second service cited was job placement, but it was mentioned only half as often as was counselling.

VII. Recommendations

If the Commission recommends that additional resources be directed to the education of undereducated adults, then the following recommendations are suggested for publicly-funded agencies providing adult education:

1. Many individuals indicate that they want to pursue educational rather than occupational goals. More emphasis should be placed on programs which support learners' efforts toward those general education goals.
2. Local schools should receive primary consideration as locations for adult basic education programs, since many of the undereducated have limits on the transportation resources available to them.
3. Consideration should be given to providing transportation for adult basic education programs.
4. More funds need to be made available for advertising the availability of adult basic education programs in both print and other media.
5. Child care arrangements should be considered an integral part of adult basic education programs.
6. Mornings and evenings seem clearly preferred times for adult basic education classes.
7. Special effort should be made in providing adult basic education programs for the older adult population.
8. More research is needed to identify critical qualities for successful teachers of undereducated adults.
9. Class sizes should be kept to an average of 12-15 participants.
10. Educational counselling services should be made available to undereducated participants as well as non-participants.
11. Strong consideration should be given to structuring large segments of adult basic education programs for individualized instruction.

HANDICAPPED ADULTS

I. Definition of Subpopulation

The UNESCO Division of Statistics on Education identifies seven categories of handicapped adults:

blind and visually handicapped,
deaf and hearing handicapped,
mentally retarded,
physically handicapped,
emotionally disturbed or socially maladjusted,
handicapped by speech difficulties,
having reading and writing difficulties due to mental or physical handicaps.

Wells (1977) writes that persons are considered handicapped if their activity is restricted due to a disability or an impairment. A disability is defined as the loss of functional ability while impairment is defined as the absence of all or part of a limb, having a defective limb, organ or body mechanism which inhibits mobility, independence and self-care. Some handicaps, Wells points out, are socially imposed due to social attitudes and that some persons with impairments and disabilities might not find their lives as limited as they are if they were not ignored or treated as dependent.

II. Search Strategy and Sources

In our initial ERIC search some literature appeared from the U.S. about impaired or disabled adults. Those happenstance findings brought the subpopulation to our attention and in a subsequent ERIC and ONTERIS search we deliberately requested research data on the educational needs of handicapped adults. Still, very few pieces of data were located. Supplemental information was sought from both Statistics Canada and the Ontario Federation for the Physically Handicapped.

III. Subpopulation Size

Statistics Canada does not formally compile figures on the number of handicapped adults in the society. The Ontario Federation for the Physically Handicapped, however, estimates that approximately

one in seven persons in Ontario has a handicap. In terms of total numbers in the population, they estimate that about 700,000 to 800,000 persons have handicaps.

IV. Summary of Educational Needs

According to Costello (1977), in a study of a sample of deaf persons in 15 U.S. cities, the principal need was for an improvement in language skills. The second major area of interest was improved management of home, property and money. The need mentioned most often after these first two was for help in increasing their incomes through better jobs.

Block (1973), in a sample of hearing-impaired adults in Illinois, reports that preference for program content was reading and writing with the second most desired content being help in learning a new job. A third, and somewhat lesser area of interest, was the opportunity to learn about hobbies, arts and crafts.

Block also discovered that persons with hearing impairments are desirous particularly of having teachers who can use sign language and thus communicate with them directly. They are also interested in having programmed instruction and A-V equipment available for use as learning tools. Texts at lower reading levels were another request.

V. Summary of Characteristics of Participants

No studies were found in this area.

VI. Summary of Educational Conditions Desired by Subpopulation

Again, Block's study documents that the overwhelming concern of his sample was for teachers who could communicate by sign language. Persons with this handicap expressed a desire for a system of central communication regarding available programs. They also expressed a desire for referral services.

Although not a survey of handicapped persons themselves, the University of Wisconsin (1975) designed an instrument to evaluate their buildings in terms of the physical needs of handicapped persons. Excerpts from the instrument help to make clear what a broad range of physical barriers are likely to exist for varying numbers of the handicapped. For example, in terms of exterior facilities, the lack

of loading areas or the presence of curbs in parking lots can inhibit the movement of some of the handicapped. Walks, entrances and building approaches may also inhibit attendance if thought has not been given to those with limited movement.

Interior spaces were divided into two categories: those termed "general access" and those called "social access". General access facilities included such items as doors, elevators, rest rooms, public telephones, vending machines and water fountains. Social access areas were considered to be spectator sports facilities, laboratories, lecture halls, media and learning centers, and food services.

The above lists imply the potential for massive changes to be made to traditional school buildings if some of the handicapped are to be allowed full access to educational opportunities. Transportation facilities might also need to be expanded and altered.

VII. Recommendations

If the Commission recommends that additional resources be directed to the education of handicapped adults, then the following recommendation is suggested for publicly-funded agencies providing adult education:

1. Much more research is needed on the educational needs of persons with various types of handicaps.

ADDITIONAL SUMMARIES

As material was reviewed for this project some findings surfaced which were unrelated to any specific subpopulation discussion. Since these findings have value for planners of adult education programs, they are reviewed here, albeit in a potpourri manner.

Two Canadian works should be noted first. Goard and Dickinson (1971) wanted to look at participation in adult education activities in rural British Columbia. They drew a sample from 5 largely rural counties and found that 14% of the sample were participants. In comparing the participants with the non-participants, the study reports the following:

- The rate of functional illiteracy was higher among non-participants,
- Non-participants had lower educational achievement,
- Participants were more willing to give spare time to learning,
- 56% of the participants had job training, while only 31% of the non-participants did,
- Non-participants were less mobile than participants,
- Participants were active in more community organizations,
- Participants had higher occupational prestige, and
- Participants were younger than non-participants.

That profile, due to this study and many more which are similar, has come to be known among adult educators as a standard part of the stereotypic description of the distinction between participants and non-participants in continuing education programs in North America.

Hawkins (1976) looked at adult educational needs in a Northumberland-Newcastle school system in Central Ontario. The needs he documents are similar to those reported throughout this report. However, two observations are of import here. Hawkins found that 13.3% of the adults in the population he studied were involved in adult education activities; 9.4% were involved in programs in elementary and secondary schools. As the author points out, in rural areas there are few agencies offering educational activities other than the local school board. Hawkins also calculated that the cost of evening class education in the area he studied was 52¢ per capita per year for the local taxpayer.

A completely different phenomena was researched by Evelyn Kay in the United States in 1972. She set out to record the number of adults who were participating in educational programs offered by private, non-profit community organizations whose chief purpose was not to be an educational agency. Adult educators have long known that educational activity of this kind is widespread. Kay found, in brief summary (and rounded numbers) that:

- 50,000 churches served 3,600,000 learners,
- 3,300 YM/YW's and the Red Cross served 3,000,000 learners,
- 3,700 civic organizations served 1,175,000 learners,
- 4,300 social service organizations served 2,285,000 learners.

In the major studies' summary (first phase of this report) a number of recurring concerns in adult education are examined, for example, methods, barriers, subjects of interest, et cetera. Two themes are not reviewed there which are of importance to both adult learners and adult education planners. The first is the participants' willingness to pay for their education; the second is the need for information and counselling.

In an effort to resolve some of the questions around the effects of fees on adult education participation, Boshier and Baker (1978) arranged with two British Columbia community schools to randomly assign fee and non-fee status to the adult education courses offered for one term. Of the 721 participants who enrolled, 499 (69.21%) chose non-fee courses. Nine fee courses had to be dropped for lack of enrollment. This study also found, however, that the drop-out rate in non-fee courses was higher than in the fee courses. Further, they found no major economic or demographic differences between those persons who chose to pay fees and those who did not.

Ignacy Waniewicz (1976, Table 146, p. 166) found learners and would-be learners were willing to pay a wide range of fees (annual amounts) for their learning opportunities:

Nothing	17%
$50 or less	26%
$51 - $99	10%
$100 - $199	14%
$200 - $299	8%
$300 - $399	2%
$400 - $499	3%
$500 or more	12%
Don't know	8%

Robison (1976), in a sample of Western New York residents, found that 42.7% of her sample felt that about one half of the cost of adult education should be born by public funds (p.94). More fully, she reports:

Proportion of Cost Supported by the Public	% Affirming
Less than half	12.7%
About half	42.7%
More than half	11.0%
All	8.1%
Amount by need	21.7%
Don't know	3.8%

Data from a study of the adult education system in Wisconsin (Franken, 1976) revealed that users of the system said a raise in tuition might affect their future enrolment, while only 11% said a tuition fees hike definitely would affect their future enrolment. Thirty-eight percent of the students believed tuition was too high.

The need for further information and counselling is varied among various populations of adults and in various circumstances and times in their lives. Waniewicz (1976, p.171) found that 44% of learners and would-be learners thought it was important to get advice from counsellors about topics of study, while 56% felt it was important to get advice about facilities and materials. Hamilton (1976) confirms that even those who are articulate about their own needs and available resources still want some guidance available. According to Hockschild (1974), 41% of adults sampled in Vermont, regarding access to post-secondary education, felt that they had not received good advice and information about educational opportunities available to them. These itinerant findings re-enforce those already recorded in the subpopulation sections of this report.

And, finally, as reported earlier, the search for hard data on participants or would-be participants in parent education programs was basically fruitless. ERIC searches revealed no appropriate material, nor did reviews of Psychological Abstracts, Sociological Abstracts, Journal of Marriage and the Family, and Sociology Abstracts. The Vanier Institute of the Family published a study in 1973 which, in part, reported the incidence of family life education materials or events appearing in Canadian mass media. In that report, they estimated 250 articles a day appear on the subject of family life in the press in Canada. About 225 programs on Canadian radio and television deal with family life concerns every day and about 140 magazine articles appear each month.

Such evidence indicates a widespread public interest in family life and parent education resources. Local family education professionals in Toronto confirmed that various programs advocating various points of view and values attract significant numbers of adults. However, how many are involved in which programs is unknown. More importantly, no one seems to know what parents or others with family life concerns would design or request for themselves if anyone would ask. Obviously, the phenomenon is under-researched.

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